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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN FRANCE.

Origin of Colleges in Europe.

[No apology, we trust, is needed for continuing to present extracts from Dr. Johnston's valuable work. The history of the University of Paris, in its earlier stages, is the only satisfactory record of the progress of education in Europe. No nation besides France had, in those times, any considerable institution of learning. Indeed, as our readers must have observed in former articles on this subject, the University of Paris, was the great school of Europe, and the grand resort for education to the nations of every country in christendom.]

In the earlier periods of the history of the University of Paris, the lives and conduct of the students were extremely turbulent and dissipated. Though this happens more or less in all towns, where a number of young men are collected together, and freed from the restraints of servitude and dependence, yet, from a want of proper attention, it was carried to a height in Paris perfectly incompatible at once with the comfort of the citizens and with the progress of science. Gradually, however, as the government of the university became fixed on a firmer basis, and as a greater degree of order and regularity was introduced into the management of its affairs, the evils of this uncurbed licentiousness became more apparent, and attempts were made to remedy them, and to prevent a course of life so utterly at variance with real improvement. The greater number of students were boarded in the town ; and, in order to prevent the impositions of the citizens, the price of lodging was always regulated by a commission, composed of two members of the university

and two of the townsmen. But, as in those times many students were utterly unable to defray the expense of living in this manner, it became a work of charity to construct buildings where they might be lodged in considerable numbers, free of expense and under the eye of a superior, whose business it should be to watch over their moral conduct, and train them to habits of industry and study. At first, established on a very small scale, these institutions led to the foundation of those colleges that afterwards formed one of the most important and essential branches of the university.

It is not easy to say when colleges were first founded ; much confusion prevails upon the subject, and it is difficult to discover, whether the many public institutions established at early periods of history were intended as endowments for poor students or for religious associations, or as hospitals for the sick. According to Duboullai,* colleges may be dated as far back as the University itself. The two earliest, of which, however, the precise destination is still doubtful, were established in the twelfth century ; the one named St. Thomas du Louvre, was founded by Robert Count of Dreux, son of Louis le Gros, under the protection of St. Thomas of Canterbury. In it poor students were supported gratis, and the king distributed alms ; to which custom may be traced the origin of Bursaries. The other college was founded on the Mont St. Genevieve as a *hospice* for Danish students.† Its destination was afterwards changed.

These colleges were not schools, as in the present day, but merely public dwellings for students, who were conducted by their governors to the public lectures. According to Meiners, the first college, of which the destination is undoubted, was founded by an Englishman, first physician to king Philip of France, about the commencement of the thirteenth century. It was instituted originally for poor students ; but its destination was changed, upon the arrival of the Dominican Friars in Paris, in 1217, who, by solicitation, obtained a gift of it for their own use. As this college had been dedicated to St. James, the Dominicans, upon gaining the possession of it in 1218, were named Jacobite Friars ; and it is an interesting fact, that the formidable political body of the Jacobins derives its name from the same source.‡ The monks of this order enjoyed great celebrity for

* II. 463, 467. † Duboullai, I. 156.
‡ M. Paris. Duboullai, III. 92, 93. Meiners, I. 111.

a considerable period, and the number of novices they attracted was enormous. Indeed, so far did they carry the system of luring students into their body, that the university, as well as the Franciscan monks, made a formal complaint on the subject to the court of the Vatican. This called forth a severe bull from Pope Innocent the Fourth. Succeeding Popes vied with each other in extending the privileges of the mendicant orders, whose fame rose with the celebrity of their teachers; theology and philosophy were publicly taught by them; and that they must have successfully taught, is sufficiently indicated by the names of Albertus Magnus, Alexander Hales, Thomas d'Acquin, and Bonaventura. Scholars and novices flocked to them from all countries, so great was their renown; and the humility of the mendicant friars was soon lost, or at least hid in the splendour of their celebrity. Encouraged by their success, other orders came forward: the Cistercian and Bernardine monks founded colleges, and soon usurped part of their prosperity. The colleges differed at first from the others, in being not entirely gratis; but as their wealth increased, this distinction was removed, and the scholars were received entirely free of expense.

Evidently adopting the models given him by these religious orders, Robert of Sorbonne, confessor of St. Louis, in 1250, laid the foundation of a college, which obtained, from the name of its founder, the title of College of the Sorbonne, and which was the first instituted for secular students of theology, as would appear from an expression contained in a decree of Louis, its great benefactor, which designates it as an establishment *ad opus congregationis pauperum magistrorum Parisiis in Theologia studentium.**

Such was the origin of the famous college of the Sorbonne, so well known in after ages all over Europe for its learning and bigotry, its crimes and follies. No other learned body previous to the time when the Jesuits acquired their ascendency, held so powerful an influence over the university, the parliament, the court, and the people, and none ever abused that influence more to the disgrace of science and religion, and to the injury of the state. Under Charles VII., Henry III., and Henry IV., the Sorbonne was in a state of open rebellion

*Bulæus III. 223, et seq. It would appear from Meiners, that at this period preliminary education was attended to; for he says, that no one was allowed to enter upon the study of theology who had not completed his course of philosophy, and obtained a degree of *Master*.

against the lawful government of France ; and, whilst for so long a period it was preaching and practising sedition, it persecuted all who laboured in the promotion of science and religion, and opposed itself with the utmost rancour and violence of bigotry to improvements in either. This is a severe, but not overcharged picture. Deeming every one beyond their walls unworthy of consideration, and denouncing every improvement in knowledge as heresy, because it touched their own character for infallibility, the doctors of the Sorbonne came in the end to raise up to themselves a host of enemies, and they finally sank into the contempt which their illiberal and intemperate behaviour so fully merited.*

During the course of the fourteenth century many new colleges were founded, the most celebrated of which were those of Navarre and Plessis. The first was the royal college instituted at Paris ; the latter was founded by Geoffroi du Plessis, apostolical secretary to Philip V., in 1326. It contained forty bursaries ; twenty for the arts, ten for philosophy and the natural sciences, and ten for theology, or canon law.† It was united to the Sorbonne in 1646.‡

The college of Navarre was founded in the year 1304 by Joan of France, with the concurrence of Philip the Fair and his eldest son Louis. It was endowed with funds to maintain twenty poor students of grammar who received each four sous a week ; thirty of philosophy, who received six sous ; and twenty of theology who received eight sous ; grammar and philosophy were taught in it, as being reckoned essential to the study of theology ; but law and medicine were excluded, and rendered incompatible with holding a bursary. Each division of the college had a teacher, and the teacher of divinity was at the same time Rector or Principal, and was chosen by the theological faculty of the university, which had also the right of making a yearly visit, and of inquiring into the expenditure of the house, and the behaviour of the inmates. An hospital and every other convenience and comfort were attached to the college ; its affairs were conducted with an admirable regularity, and the whole service of the establishment was carried on so as to render it a model for colleges that were subsequently founded. After the death of the founder, the Bishop of Melun, the Chancellor of Paris, the Dean of the Faculty of Theology, and the Professor of Di-

* Meiners Geschichte der hohen Schulen, &c. I. 121. L'Abbe Duverne hist. de la Sorbonne.

† Duboullai, IV. 191. ‡ Crevier, II. 273.

vinity in the College, were appointed Governors.* Little change was made in its internal economy; one or two additional teachers merely were appointed, and the term of enjoyment of a bursary fixed. If a student did not obtain a mastership or license before a certain period he lost his place.

But whilst the college of Navarre was so well managed, the same was not the case with the other colleges. Their affairs were so ill conducted, that, to prevent their total ruin, the university found it necessary to make a visitation, and the footing on which this should take place became a subject of considerable argument in the university itself,† as the nations could not agree upon the point, whether or not each had the exclusive right of reforming the colleges belonging to it. It has already been mentioned, that colleges were originally designed for the support and instruction of young students who had not the means of defraying their own expenses. In the course of time this destination was altered, and they came more nearly to resemble the colleges of the present day; that is, they took in pensioners, who, for a certain sum, were boarded, lodged, and instructed in particular branches of knowledge; besides which, students who did not dwell in the college, were at liberty to attend the lectures delivered in it. Colleges were now divided into great and small. In the former, which, in the reign of Louis XI., amounted to eighteen in number, grammar and rhetoric, philosophy and theology, were taught; in the latter, only grammar and rhetoric. Many colleges were founded in succeeding reigns; and in 1530 Royal Professors were established in the university for the first time by Francis the First, whose love of languages led him to wish more particular attention paid to their cultivation. The professors were paid by him, and gave lectures gratis; but, from the troubles that attended his reign, this institution was not carried so far as he intended; and, from the expensive wars in which he was engaged, he was unable to establish it as a particular or separate college. The lectures, therefore, which at first were upon the Greek and Hebrew languages, were delivered in one of the unoccupied buildings of the university. Henry II. assigned separate apartments for this establishment, Henry IV. was prevented by death from doing what he intended, and it was Louis XIII. who had the honour of building the 'College Royal de France.' Not only

* Meiners Geschichte der hohen Schulen, &c. I. 125.
† Meiners, I. 136.

were languages now taught, but science in general was cultivated in this college ; and Duvernet, in his history of the Sorbonne, says that its foundation was the epoch of the revival of the learned languages, and of the culture of the *Belles Lettres*. The instruction delivered in it being more generally directed to the public good, rendered the *College Royal* more useful, and ensured it a more permanent existence than the Sorbonne. On the first establishment of this institution by Francis,* an attempt was made to induce the celebrated Erasmus to accept the charge of it,† which he declined upon the plea of ill health and advancing age.‡

The establishment of colleges in Paris was a great advantage not only to students in particular, but to the existence and prosperity of the university itself. The students were no longer so much exposed to the seductions of idleness and dissipation ; and those who were inclined to industrious habits, could find a

* Duboullai, VI. 93, 99. 221, 222. † Crevier, V. 237, et seq.

‡ Memoire, Hist. et Lit. sur le College Royal de France, Paris, 1758. I. p. 49. Duvernet Hist de la Sorbonne, I. 233. This college exists in the present day in the full possession of all its celebrity. It does not form one of the Royal Colleges belonging to the Academy of Paris ; it is of a much higher class, and differs from them in many respects, both as to its constitution, organization, and courses of study. It was founded in the year 1530 by Francis the First, who elected twelve Professors to teach Greek, Hebrew, Eloquence, Philosophy, Mathematics, and Medicine ; other chairs were afterwards formed. In the year 1774, it was organized upon the footing it is at present, with the exception of two additional professorships, founded by Louis XVIII. for the Sanscrit and Chinese languages. The Professors are named by the king, and under the authority of the Minister of the Interior. The lectures are upon the following subjects :—

Astronomy,
Mathematics,
Mathematical Physics,
Experimental Physics,
Medicine,
Anatomy,
Chemistry,
Natural History,
Law of Nature and of Nations,
History and Morals,
Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syrian Languages,
Arabic Language,
Turkish Language,
Persian Language,
Language and Literature of the Chinese and Tartars,
Sanscrit Language and Literature,
Greek Language and Literature,
Greek Language and Philosophy,
Latin Eloquence,
Poetry,
French Literature.

place, where, in a species of retirement, they might prosecute their studies with zeal and without interruption. At the same time the university itself was upheld by the colleges, and obtained from them a degree of stability, without which it must have given way during the frequent disputes with which the country and the city were distracted.

COMMON SCHOOL SYSTEM OF NEW-YORK.

[From the Annual Report of A. C. Flagg, Esq., Superintendent of Common Schools, made to the Legislature of the State of New-York, January 29, 1828.]

A brief notice of the history of our school system, and of the appropriations by which a liberal and permanent fund has been established, will interest those who have watched the progress, and marked the results, of a system of instruction, designed to embrace the entire population of the state.

By 'an act for the encouragement of schools,' passed the ninth of April, 1795, twenty thousand pounds were appropriated for five years out of the annual revenues of the state, 'for the purpose of encouraging and maintaining schools in the several cities and towns in this state, in which the children of the inhabitants, residing in the state, shall be instructed in the English language, or be taught English grammar, arithmetic, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as are most useful and necessary to complete a good English education.' This sum was at first appropriated to the counties according to the representation, and afterwards 'in proportion to the number of electors for members of assembly in each county;' and to the towns, according to the number of taxable inhabitants in each. The several counties were required to raise a sum equal to *one half* of that appropriated by the state, to be applied in like manner. This act authorized the appointment of commissioners of towns, of trustees of districts, and required annual returns to be made to the secretary of state. An abstract of these returns is contained in the Journals of the Assembly of 1798. The paper marked G.* shows that there were, at that time, one thousand three hundred and fifty-two common schools, and fifty-nine

* Omitted for want of room.

thousand six hundred and sixty children taught in the state. By a comparison with the returns of this year, it is seen that in the last thirty years, the increase in the number of schools is six thousand nine hundred and forty-six, and in the number of scholars taught, three hundred and eighty-two thousand one hundred and ninety-six. In 1800, a proposition to renew this act, was negatived in the assembly, fifty-two to thirty-nine.

The foundation of the present fund for the support of common schools in this state, was laid in 1805, by an act providing 'that the nett proceeds of five hundred thousand acres of the vacant and unappropriated lands of the people of this state, which shall be first sold by the surveyor-general after the passing of this act, shall be and hereby are appropriated as a permanent fund for the support of common schools.' This act also made provision for loaning the monies arising from this fund, until the interest arising from the same should amount to fifty thousand dollars; after which, the interest annually arising from it to be distributed for the support of common schools. This measure was recommended by the then governor, in a message to the legislature of that year. (See Assembly Journals, p. 112.)

In 1805, provision was made in the charter of the Merchants' Bank, that three thousand shares might be subscribed for by the state, and which was declared to belong to the fund for the support of common schools.

In 1811, five commissioners were appointed by the governor, 'to report a system for the organization and establishment of common schools.' In 1812, these commissioners made a report, which will be found on the Journals of the Assembly of that year, page 102. The system recommended in this report was adopted in 1812; it was amended and improved in 1819; and it is substantially the system which is now in force, and which has recently been revised and re-enacted.

By an act passed April 13, 1819, one half of the amount to be received from quit-rents was appropriated to the school fund. By another act of the same date, the loans of 1792 an 1808; the shares of the capital stock of the Merchants' Bank, held by the people of this state; the nett proceeds of all lands which may escheat to this state in the military tract; and the nett proceeds of the fees of the clerks of the supreme court; were forever appropriated to the school fund.

In 1824, forty thousand dollars, being a reservation in certain grants for lotteries, were added to the common school fund.

In 1826, an act was passed authorizing the annual distribution

of one hundred thousand dollars to common schools; and as the school fund produced only eighty-five thousand dollars, fifteen thousand dollars were paid for the general funds of the state. To provide a permanent fund which would produce one hundred thousand dollars per annum, the law of 1827 was passed, appropriating one hundred and thirty-three thousand dollars, which is noticed in the preceding part of this report.

To elevate the standard of education in the common schools, it is indispensable that the qualifications of teachers should be improved. The inhabitants of the school districts ought to be impressed with the great importance of affording such compensation, as will induce men of good talents to fit themselves for the situation of teachers, as a profession for life. The character and usefulness of the schools, are immediately dependent upon the qualifications of the instructers.

Connected with the subject of training up competent teachers for the common schools, it may not be inappropriate to notice the provisions of an act passed at the last session of the legislatuare, 'to increase the literature fund, and to promote the education of teachers.' This act appropriates one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, to be added to the literature fund; and requires the distribution of the income of that fund among the incorporated academies and seminaries, 'in proportion to the number of pupils instructed in each, for six months during the preceding year, who shall have pursued classical studies or the *higher branches of English education*.' Heretofore, the apportionment has been confined to the number of students pursuing *classical studies*. The increase of the literature fund, and the extension of its benefits to all such pupils as are pursuing the higher branches of an English education, will tend to multiply the number of those who will be qualified to instruct in the common schools, and to encourage the academies in becoming nurseries of teachers.

The paper marked H.* shows the relative gain and loss in the number of children taught in the several counties. A diminution in the number of children instructed in the common schools, is not to be taken as conclusive evidence of inattention to the subject of education, in the county where it occurs. It is rather to be regarded as indicating the establishment of private schools, and the consequent withdrawal of scholars from the public schools.

'The 22d annual report of the trustees of the public school society of New-York,' gives a very flattering account of the

* Omitted for want of room.—*Ed.*

progress and good standing of the public schools in that city; and having visited eleven of these schools, in company with the commissioners of school monies, in October last, I can add, with much pleasure and satisfaction, my testimony to the justness and accuracy of the report, in whatever relates to the character of the schools, and the skill and ability of the teachers.

A judicious selection of class books is important to the common schools. Improvements in this particular are desirable. Within a few years, a class of books have been published, which seem better adapted to the capacities of children, and which tend to inculcate a more just conception of the principles of our free institutions, than some which have preceded them. It is our system of universal education, which is to shield this country from the fate which has, sooner or later, overtaken every republic which has existed. To give effect to this principle of vitality, and thus to give permanency to our happy form of government, the first rank should be given to American history, as well as to American principles, in our seminaries and schools. As a measure, preparatory to the introduction into our common schools of class books of an improved and uniform character, it migth be advisable to make an appropriation of one hundred dollars per annum, to enable the superintendent to collect an assortment of school books, as specimens merely. Such a collection of books would form a beneficial appendage to our school system, and would furnish the necessary materials for making a selection of those best adapted to the purposes of instruction.

A. C. FLAGG,
Superintendent of Common Schools.

ADVANTAGES OF MATHEMATICAL DISCIPLINE.

[The value of mathematics, as a branch of education, has always been justly urged on the attention of parents and teachers. The close, and sustained attention, required in the study of this science, and the clearness and force of thought, as well as the patient and careful habits of investigation, to which it is so conducive, are all arguments of much weight in its favour.

But it would not, perhaps, be difficult to prove, that, in past theories of education, if not in those of our own day, the proportion of time and attention assigned to mathematical science, in the abstract, has been very unequal; when we consider the importance of other branches of study, and their more extensive

use in the various departments of business. The recent advances, however, (daily becoming more rapid and extensive,) in many sciences directly applicable to the conveniences and comforts of life, are now giving a more practical turn to the mathematical part of education, as connected with the study of those sciences. A subservience to useful purposes is more carefully consulted in the course of application prescribed in most seminaries; and in no institution, we believe, has the usefulness of education been more attentively regarded than in the Lyceum at Gardiner.

In a former No. (16) we gave an account of this interesting school of practical instruction. The following paragraphs are extracted from the farewell address of Mr. Hale, formerly principal of the Lyceum. For the use of the copy from which our extracts are made, we are indebted to a friend of improvement, who had procured and transcribed the original address.]

With all the encomiums, which are now lavished upon science, and with all the prevailing excitement upon the subject of education, there is lingering in the minds of the community, a disposition somewhat adverse to thorough instruction. Every short cut to science is thronged with travellers; and books which give some slight notice of philosophy are eagerly sought. And we would say nothing to prevent the good which such books are doing. I rejoice at the faintest dawning of science, and expect the full effulgence of day. I would felicitate the community upon the better understanding of a single principle, and hail him as a benefactor to the public, who turns one new rill into the stream of knowledge.

But when the importance of thorough instruction and of extensive knowledge in philosophy and mathematics, is not known, and, with only a little labour, enough to satisfy the present appetite can be acquired, few will give days and nights of weariness for profound attainments. I have had the happiness, gentlemen, to agree with you* in the belief that we should render the most valuable service to the public by prescribing a course of study in mathematics and philosophy, as thorough as the time which could be devoted to such pursuits would allow. The various attainments which can be made by a few weeks' labour, without apparatus or experiments, will soon be perceived to be insufficient, and the sooner, if the value of more extensive knowledge is demonstrated by its results.

* The trustees.

It may be thought that those who are destined to mechanical pursuits cannot appropriate sufficient time to make any valuable attainments in the mathematical principles of philosophy. This opinion is erroneous. Is it uncommon for such young men to spend two or three years at schools where they pass their time in some desultory efforts at learning the languages, in committing some philosophical accidence, and in acquiring some knowledge of surveying and navigation, without having laid any foundation in algebra and geometry? This is far better than nothing; but in the same time which is taken up with this ill assorted learning, a scholar might thoroughly acquire several of the most important branches of the mathematics, and their application to physical and mechanical science.

The difference between attainments made by rambling efforts, not directed to a definite object, and those made by pursuing a well digested course of study, is surprising. I have seen it in my own pupils. While some, whom we have indulged with too much liberty in directing their own studies, have passed away a term, without becoming much the wiser; their companions, who have patiently travelled on in the regular course, have found themselves to have made attainments, of which they had reason to be proud. There is no question but in the same time which is passed away by multitudes of scholars, without making any solid acquisitions, a more perfect knowledge of mathematics and philosophy might be acquired, than is attained in the regular course of study at most of our highest institutions.

It is supposed that the mathematics are too abstruse for immature minds. What relations, I would ask, are more simple than those of greater and less? What ideas are so well defined as mathematical; and is it possible that the comparison of indefinite notions should be easier, than of those which are precise, of those whose relations are numerous and unsettled than of those whose relations are few and simple?

Such is the character of mathematical reasoning; and I believe it essentially easier than metaphysical, which is yet supposed not to be beyond the reach of boys and girls at school.

It is true that a person may be deemed respectable for his attainments in metaphysics, while his notions are shadowy and indistinct. But, in mathematics, he who has not distinct ideas, has none. And this points out to us the real difficulty of mathematical studies, and their real excellence. They require of us at every step the most clear perceptions, and accustom us to exactness of reasoning.

Mathematical ideas can be made clear to a mind of common acuteness, if they are presented in their proper simplicity; and if, after patient trial, mathematical studies are given up as unattainable, it must be the fault of the book or the master.

I speak advisedly: I could point out to you instructers who have taught for years with no inconsiderable reputation, and who have uniformly omitted certain rules in arithmetic, because they could not teach them; and I could then direct you to schools, where children daily solve questions in those very rules by calculations entirely mental, and find amusement in it. And I see not why the same may not be true of other parts of mathematics; and I imagine that men of after times will wonder at the difficulty which their ancestors found in perceiving and pointing out the most simple of all relations.

I need not descant upon the uses of the mathematics, without which the heavens would speak an uninterpreted language to the mariner, without which the engineer would in vain attempt to serve the cause of internal improvement—or of the mechanics to a people busily employed in erecting manufactories, in constructing vessels, and in perfecting a navigation which regards neither wind nor tide. If you can find any thing, which can neither be measured nor numbered, you will discover a limit to mathematics; and if you can find any thing to which nature has given no properties, no power of giving or receiving action, you will discover a limit to philosophy and mechanics.

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS.

Early Intellectual Application injurious to Health.

If this be the case, (speaking of the evils of the sedentary and confined life of professional men and of some classes of mechanics), with those whose corporal and other powers of resistance have arrived at their fullest strength, how much more truly may it be affirmed of those who are yet in that progressive stage, which precedes the full developing of the system. Of how much moment then is the physical, as well as the moral, education of children! We have only to observe the manner in which strong feelings act, to judge of the comparative influence of less powerful impressions. Correspondent to the degree in which sensations exert their influence, a reaction is produced, which we distinguish by the term 'emotion.' The agitation produced

by the first sensation is immediately communicated to the whole nervous system ; and according to the nature of the impression made upon the mind, a commensurate sympathy is felt in the animal economy. To reiterated or continued emotions, affections succeed, and (the term being applicable to unpleasant as well as pleasant states of the feelings) certain trains of agreeable emotions produce those affections which increase the force of the vital energies, while emotions of a different nature tend to depress them. Convinced as we must be, how much our relish and enjoyment of life in all its stages depend upon the state of the mind, we cannot for a moment doubt its influence at that early period, when the frame is most susceptible. Under circumstances of great anxiety, with what activity do the vital properties sympathize ! With what rapidity do they pass from the highest to the lowest degree of energy ! The whole habit feels disordered—the muscular fibres lose their tone, and the stomach becomes affected ; such is the subserviency we involuntarily pay to the nervous influence, which to the animal system is what the sun is to the flower. What indeed has aptly and poetically been termed, 'the sunshine of the mind,' has in every part of life the same happy effects ; but its presence is the most indispensable in that early stage, when the developing of the intellectual and organic system may be said to depend in no small degree upon its influence.

The interest which appears due to this subject will be increased, when we look around us and behold the silent inroads which deformity and disease have been making upon the health or beauty of the present generation of females, and consider that their great natural susceptibility makes *them* peculiarly allied to suffering, and gives them a conformation less favourable to mental tranquillity. So much is this the case in civilized society, that it often happens that few in number are the merely physical causes of evil, in comparison with that inexhaustible moral source which is derived from the disposition to create sorrows by imagination ; to perpetuate them by reflection, and to multiply them by apprehension and anticipation. The natural counterbalance of this, is that organization which renders the motions fugitive in proportion to their violence. But by education we diminish this great natural spring of ease and consolation, in the degree that we increase the disposition to reflection, and turn the mind upon itself. Yet such is the first aim of intellectual instruction ; and the new condition in which we thus place the mind ought to remind us of the delicacy and tenderness with

which the task should be performed ; so that in proportion as we render the system susceptible, we may diminish the sources of irritation and pain.

But it is a duty in many cases to pursue the means of diminishing rather than of increasing the action of the intellectual functions. When we observe a weakly physical organization united to that exquisite delicacy of perception, that finely constituted mind, cognizable in some delicate females, at an early age ; we have reason to suspect that the energies of life are far from strong. That precocity of intellect, that brilliancy and exuberance of imagination, which parents are so fond of contemplating in their children, conceal too frequently under a flattering surface a frightful danger. In the strict economy which nature practises, this extra development of the intellect can scarcely take place but at the expense of some other part of the system ; and in those young subjects in which it is remarkable, particularly when it is accompanied with weak stamina, it behooves us to attempt to balance the general powers, and to counteract this inordinate action of the intellectual functions, by adequate muscular movements in exercise. The records of navigators furnish us with the accounts of different tribes of savages, who are willing to barter for a present gratification, their most essential necessaries ; in civilized life we are apt to reverse this picture, and to make the sacrifice, not of the future to the present, but of the present to the future. Such is the case, when in our anxiety to give our children accomplishments, which shall decorate the years to come, we overlook the important wants of the present hour, though they are essential to that health, which alone can warrant us to expect the period, which such decorations are intended to embellish.

By aiming, therefore, at this mental brilliancy, where the powers of life are weak, we run great risk of destroying the very basis upon which it is founded, and of rendering the glare short lived in proportion to its brightness. In both sexes the finest genius appears often connected with peculiar delicacy of constitution and, under similar circumstances, it behooves us to be vigilant, lest, in our too great anxiety to give expansion to the former, the latter should suffer irretrievably. Where an enemy lies in ambush in the constitution, its advances are made frequently under cover of those accomplishments, elegant or literary, with the display of which it is natural to be pleased. But it seems supposed, that the studies of females, from their lightness and less profound nature, are less likely to

be dangerous to the health, than those of the other sex; yet from this very cause they are frequently more so; and hence, one reason why their health more frequently suffers at school than that of boys. The more light and superficial is the character of study, the lower degree of interest does it excite, and commanding less the activity and exhausting less the excitability of the mind, it increases greatly the irksomeness of the confinement. From this and other causes, among which may be generally considered an inadequate degree of muscular exercise, the female habit, particularly in the early part of life, displays an organization of the most irritable and susceptible character. Hence the prevalence of consumption, scrofula, and spinal disease. It is, truly, at once a melancholy and appalling consideration, how large a proportion of young women of the present day, who are fashionably educated, whether at boarding schools or at home, are the victims of some one or other of these diseases; and in reflecting upon this, it is impossible not to be struck with the humbling lesson which is thereby read to the pride of man. Is, then, all the boasted intellectual superiority of the present day purchased at the expense of our physical powers? Does not the author of our being thus show us, that we cannot highly cultivate one part of our nature without injury to the other? Is knowledge a weakness? Is genius a disease? One thing at least is certain, the bodily strength of the females of the upper and middle classes of society has been materially injured by the fashionable modes of instruction which have now for many years prevailed; the parents therefore of the rising generation, and the teachers of it too, should have their eyes opened to the frequency of these diseases, and the picture of their miseries, their causes, and the means of their prevention, should be from time to time held up to them. It is only by so doing that those, who have, to speak collectively, *the care of health*, can be said to fulfil the duty which they owe to the public, or that any rational hope can be entertained of checking the fearful ravages of these diseases, particularly of the last, by leading them to reflect on these things, and their consequences. I would urge them to consider, whether the sum of human happiness, virtue, and social usefulness, has, or has not increased by this barter of physical strength and mental peace for those accomplishments, which, in the struggle of acquisition, render their possessors incapable of long retaining or fully enjoying them. To go beyond this point, in speaking upon a subject to which I have not adverted without much of anxious

feeling and many painful recollections, would be to overstep the bounds which are prescribed to me as the minister of *health alone*, or I might ask, with even yet more seriousness of inquiry, are those who have the care of children quite sure, that in thus far immolating them on the altar of this world, they run no risk of depriving them of all 'good hope' of 'that which is to come?'—*Dr. Cooke.*

EARLY EDUCATION OF FEMALES.

[For the following thoughts on this subject we are indebted, as our readers will observe, to the author of the article in our last, under the head of Suggestions to Parents on Female Education.]

Since my suggestions on the subject of female education have been deemed worthy of being placed by the editor of the Journal among his 'suggestions to parents,' I am encouraged to proceed in unfolding a plan of operation, which, I think, would bring instruction to bear more immediately upon the mind, and consequently require a shorter period of time to do its work. By this I do not mean that more hours should be devoted to study than at present. Even a less number of hours might accomplish more than is at present done, were the studies arranged with more attention to their nature in reference to the age and state of mind of their pupils. Teachers have neglected this principle of arrangement too much; and children are kept for months, not to say years, labouring upon subjects, which, if presented at the proper period, could be acquired in a few weeks. For instance, as *grammar* was taught heretofore, children were made to commit it to memory, were taught the technicalities of parsing; and all this before they were capable of understanding the principles of *universal grammar*. Thus years were devoted to the study, when, there is no doubt, a mind fully awake, at the proper degree of maturity, having been made to comprehend the principles of universal grammar by a week's attention, could be put in possession of the peculiarities the grammar of our native tongue—in a month. The question is how to produce that attentive mind, to which acquirement is an exercise as natural and constant and agreeable as that of breathing. Education can

never be thought to have done its work, till this effect has been produced.

The first steps which are to be taken, regard physical education; and in this department, there is vastly more to be said and done. The nervous temperament of children must be consulted, and the means of inducing self control discovered, since all external attempts to repress nervous movements but increase the difficulty. The nerves of a child can only be controlled negatively—that is, not be excited by others. All positive influence must proceed from the child's own mind.

But the best physical education is not sufficient to produce an attentive mind. Indeed, it is well known that the most inattentive, inefficient, sleepy minds are often connected with firm health ; and that some kinds of disease operate for the advantage of the intellect, by producing quiet and checking restlessness. The deep conviction of the mind's ability to be sound and happy in itself, is one of the compensations which inspire in those constituted feeble, a deep and happy consciousness of the equity of the Father of our spirits.

But however independent we acknowledge the mind may be in particular instances of bodily deformity, yet no one doubts that the generality of mankind, placed as they are in the midst of active duties, need health. The feeble may be deeper thinkers, and a few are useful because they may think for others ; but the feeble cannot act, and a great deal of action must be performed in human life.

It is the business of education, therefore, to furnish material on which children, overflowing with the buoyancy and activity of health, may expend their superfluous riches, and to watch for moments when the body is in comparative repose, (at which moments the mind craves its appropriate food,) to communicate those ideas which we wish should reach the mind, and become a part of it. Bodily movement, (and in children how incessant it is !) interferes with attention ; and this must be allowed for and indulged in some way. Children were made to act ; and for a certain season they resist being acted upon except at the intervals of their own activity. Would we be aware of this, and respect it as one of those laws of nature which spring from Infinite Wisdom, we should find that watching for impressible moments, and using them efficiently, we should assist the young mind much more effectually than we now do in attempting too much.

In our selection of the early employments of children, then,

we must give them something to do which will entirely employ this activity. Play will not serve the purpose. Children can never be made to have any sense of responsiblility about play, and the growth of the mind must always have the sense of responsibility as one of its elements, or the fruit will not be immortal. The sober employments, the studies of children, must afford them something to do, if we wish to produce real power of intellect. This principle is acknowledged, though not always acted upon, in moral education. We do not suppose we can give moral power by discoursing ever so eloquently upon the beauty of disinterestedness, and describing ever so minutely all the actions which constitute the way of virtue. We give children opportunities of loving, and encourage them to acts of kindness, and rely upon making them individually feel their responsibility to make others happy at their own expense, and in this way we prepare them to comprehend the theory of moral sentiment, and to catch and apply with the rapidity of thought every new mode of performing duty, which may suggest itself to them. Intellectual power cannot grow without intellectual action, any more than moral power without moral action. Science and literature are the development of the action of mind upon certain materials. In order that they may be rapidly acquired, it is necesary that the student understand mental action, which cannot be understood unless it has been experienced, and that he be able to fix his attention upon these materials—which is the more difficult if they are only represented in words. To aid this attention, then, is the object, as well as to employ activity ; and will not *the art of drawing* serve all the purpose ? For, in the first place, it employs the activity of children, and produces that quiet which is necessary to the reception of instruction, and by a less repulsive mode than forcible repression of the animal spirits. No danger can arise from a few hours, quietness if the mind is absorbed in an interesting occupation, but to be quiet for its own sake is as injurious to children as it is unnatural. Learning to draw, teaches accurate observation also. This is of infinite importance. It will soon be transferred to nature, whose forms become the source of taste by giving beautiful material for imagination to work upon ; and by being carried into the studies of children, will make those which are often now quite uninteresting, to be rapidly acquired. The habit of observation produced by drawing, will aid very essentially in teaching children to spell correctly. We remember a case in point. A child of seven or eight years old was once

under our immediate observation, who had only learned his alphabet, but whose taste for drawing had been cultivatd remarkably. This child learned to read in the 'Sequel to Frank' in ten days, (and without going through the process of learning to spell,) by the accuracy of his eye—and was becoming interested in analyzing the words into syllables and letters, which he did with great expertness; when he was taken away, and we were deprived of the opportunity of witnessing or even hearing of his further progress.

There is no question that drawing would facilitate writing. A pencil is much more easy to wield than a pen, and the use of it would produce a flexibility of the fingers, besides that the habit of imitation would be already formed; and it is nearly useless to let children attempt writing until they possess both flexibility of fingers, and this habit of imitation in some degree. Drawing would also be of direct use in the study of *geography*. It is not only very useful to draw maps, but in physical geography conception may be rendered vivid by drawings of the plants and animals, and sometimes of the landscapes of the regions described.

The drawings, however, should be of common objects, whenever it is possible; and a great deal of collateral instruction concerning common things may be conveyed in an informal way, and will be rendered distinct to the minds of children by the accompanying delineation. At a later period, when the theory of perspective is taught, the science of optics, and the great laws of nature connected with it, will almost necessarily interest the mind, and open the way to *natural philosophy and mathematics*.

Besides all this, there is is the general influence upon *taste*, to which we have only referred. A delicate taste is of the highest importance to those whose business it is 'to preside over the society of society, the more civilized part of civilized life.' Drawing the human face will lead to a consideration of the power of human passion over the material with which it is connected, and almost necessarily enlist taste against loss of the equilibrium and beautiful expressions of virtue.

Some persons have made the objection to drawing that it has too much the appearance of play. Experiment would very soon do away this objection. Drawing is quite as severe an employment as any of the studies of children, but has the advantage of other studies in being more agreeable, because employing their fingers and filling their imaginations.

Other persons say that all children have not a taste for drawing. This is not an undisputed point, however. The desire to imitate the forms of objects is one of the first things observed in children. They are soon discouraged, it is true, and even when there is great delicacy of taste; and perhaps the discouragements may be attributed in many instances to the very delicacy of the taste, which produces dissatisfaction when execution falls below conception. There will be more difficulty in some children's learning to draw than others, as some are too indolent to make the requisite exertion and some too restless to be persevering, and it cannot be taught as an amusement. But this may be said of all the studies and employments of children and less of drawing than any other. We never ask whether children have a taste for writing, and hardly observe their reluctance to learning to write, because writing, we say, is necessary. What unfits drawing for a mere amusement, makes it a very proper employment for the serious hours of school.

Having made these preliminary remarks, we proceed to state our plan. We would have girls begin to draw as soon as they leave those first schools where they learn to read and sew. We would have it precede writing and geography, and in some instances arithmetic. Some children have a facility for arithmetic; and when that is the case, it should be studied. But when there is an aversion to it, it would be better the child should have the advantage of some previous discipline on the power of attention.

Two lessons in *drawing* a day, and these at first for quite a short time, together with *writing*, *spelling*, *reading*, and such exercises of mind as may be drawn out of the reading lesson, might employ a year or two in early education with great advantage. A great deal is lost by children's not being led to understand thoroughly the meaning of words; and especially by their being set to learn lessons without having learnt first to read readily and understand at a glance the import of a sentence. Among the exercises upon the reading lesson, that of *discriminating synonymes* can be early taught by the teacher's proposing to them sentences for consideration in which a word nearly synonymous is inserted instead of the right word. A difference will often be made obvious to them in this way, which they could not perceive before. *Tracing etymologies* is very entertaining work to children when they are assisted in it, as they always must be; and their attention is easily attracted to explanations of the *figurative applications of words*; and perhaps it is not

often adverted to, that children require explanations of figures which are so trite that we unconsciously confound them with literal expressions, and especially when the figure is contained in one word.

Reading should always, when it is possible, be done in classes, and by a proper selection of books, having first produced the habit of attention by letting them read what is attractive to the imagination, the instructer may convey considerable knowledge of *natural history*, of the *manners* and *customs* of other countries, and were there more books like Scott's 'Tales of a Grandfather' even of the *history* of nations.

It is not possible, at this moment, to enter into detail upon all that should be done by the reading lesson in the discipline of children. The subject might afford matter for a volume; and the highest order of minds need not feel that this stage of education is beneath their powers.

Children having been taught to read with ease, and understanding to draw, and to write, we would proceed to combine with these, *arithmetic* and *geography*; and where it is intended that the languages should be learned, the Latin, or when Latin is to be omitted in education, the French. The exercises upon the English language which were combined with the reading lesson, will be found to be a very great assistance to children in their study of other languages. An efficient mode of teaching, and uniform, not intense application on the part of the pupils, will give children, after such discipline, a complete foundation in the study of language, in four years, beginning at the tenth. In some instances, an earlier beginning is advantageous; but in such cases the course will not be completed earlier though it was begun earlier.

But we do not think it of so much importance that young persons should begin that course of self improvement which we mean should employ them for two or three years after they leave school—with a great deal of acquirement, as that they should have taste, strong and attentive minds, industrious habits, and judgment in the application of their faculties to new studies. We would recommend that there should be no artificial stimulus to exertion in school, no motives offered that will not operate just as powerfully in solitary study. The motives that spring from the sense of responsibility and the pleasure of exercising the faculties, will even be more powerful on retiring from the busy scenes of the school room. E. N. Q.

REVIEWS.

1. *Œuvres de Du Marsais.* Paris. 1797. 7vols. 8vo.
2. *A Selection of M. Perrin's Fables, accompanied with a Key to facilitate their Translation. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language, at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. 1827. 12mo. pp. 84.
3. *A Key to a Selection of M. Perrin's Fables. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. 1827. 12mo. pp. 227.
4. *Les Aventures de Télémaque fils d' Ulysse, par Fénelon. From the last and best Paris Edition, accompanied by a Key to facilitate the Translation of this Work. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. J. Saval. 1827. 12mo. pp. 355.
5. *A Key to the first eight books of the Adventures of Telemachus, the son of Ulysses. By* A. Bolmar, *Professor of the French Language at the High School of Philadelphia.* Philadelphia. J. Saval. 1827. 12mo. pp. 273.

It has been justly remarked that *theory* exhibits *principles* only in a lifeless state, while practice gives them animation, and experience confirms their strength. In no art or science is the truth of this assertion more strikingly exemplified, than in the formation of *methods* of instruction. The reason why, in this matter at least, practice so often varies from theory, is, that the two are frequently found in the hands of different individuals.

The practical teacher, is, often, of too limited a capacity, or too slender attainments, to form principles and digest them into a system; while the theorist is equally deficient in the skill to apply, and in the patience to justify his principles.

But since the public has decided that the business of education in our country, must, in future, be conducted by men of enlarged and liberal minds, capable of discovering and stating as well as of comprehending and applying principles,—and that the practical and theoretical teacher shall be united in the same person, it seems likely that a new order of things will ere long be exhibited. Of this happy revolution in public opinion the rising generation will reap the principal fruits; but the philanthropist of whatever age may enjoy the prospect.

For this reason we are glad to find the exertions of well educated practical teachers, who know the actual wants of the

youthful mind, and who are free from pedantry, conceit, and mysterious pretensions,—employed on the preparation of books suited to the purposes of early education.

Du Marsais was born in 1676, and died in 1756. A great portion of his long life was devoted to literary subjects, and especially to the reforming of methods of instruction. The first edition of his '*Exposition d' une methode raizonnée pour apprendre la langue Latine*' was published in 1722. Many sagacious observers had, long before that time, perceived the gross abuse of youthful talents and dispositions, and the unprofitable waste of human life, in the prevalent method of studying languages; but none that we are aware of, had devised and applied an adequate remedy.

Many expedients had been suggested, and much thought bestowed on the perfecting of methods; but all were insufficient to remove the difficulties, encountered in this department of education. The Irish Jesuits resident at Salamanca, had, about the year 1605, proposed the plan of introducing boys to an extensive acquaintance with Latin words, by means of a collection of phrases in Latin and Spanish, so constructed, that no word, except particles, connectives, and the like, should be more than once inserted, and yet that none but *approved* words should be introduced. Their work was published in London in 1615, and contained twelve hundred sentences. The title adopted was, the *Gate of Languages*, ('Janua Linguarum,') and so ready an access was it supposed to afford to the mysteries of tongues, and so great an improvement was it found to be on the methods then in use, that editions were soon prepared and published adapting the work to almost all the countries of Europe. In 1631 John A. Comenius, having discovered, as he says, divers imperfections in the work of the Irish Jesuits, particularly that the sense in which the Latin words were used by them was not always the original or principal signification, and that their book was rather a test of attainments already made, than a true guide to new acquisitions,—published a work which he called *Janua Linguarum Reserata*, or *the gate of languages unlocked*, which in one thousand sentences embraced no less than eight thousand different words. These sentences were arranged under one hundred different heads or general divisions, each comprising an important class of real objects.

All abstract and unintelligible words and phrases were diligently excluded. Even this, however, was far from giving the exact, literal translation of each word; and though every word

was in such a construction as the usage of the particular language required, yet that construction was not the same for all languages; and consequently one was in this respect no guide to a knowledge of the other. We apprehend that, in practice, such a book must be found scarcely more interesting than a naked vocabulary; and for teaching construction it would be no better than any other piece of composition furnished with an easy translation.

At the period when Comenius wrote, a practical acquaintance with the Latin language, such as would enable a man to write and speak not only on literary subjects, but also on the most common topics and occurrences, was deemed highly desirable; and to this purpose his work was well adapted, inasmuch as it contained a great variety of words relating to the common affairs of life. But though successful beyond his expectations, this device did not supply all the defects in the method of teaching languages. The pupil acquired a *copia verborum*, and received many correct impressions of things. Some editions which we have seen, were accompanied with cuts, representing certain classes of the objects described. This was in conformity with that canon of the didactic art which Comenius lays down, as universal, namely, that the tongue and the understanding ought ever to run parallel and keep close company; because 'he who cannot utter what he knows, is a statue, and he who knows not what he utters is a parrot.' But all these helps did not remove the most formidable of those obstacles which are to be surmounted in studying a foreign language.

Notwithstanding the labours of Comenius and of many others, who, during the seventeenth century, declared their hostility to the ancient methods, the system of the schools still prevailed. Ascham, and Locke, and Faber, and Ratichius, had all written to convince the world that reform in the business of education was essentially necessary for the welfare of mankind; but like the arguments in favour of English parliamentary reform, their appeals were made to men who were interested in retaining the abuses and corruptions which were the subject of complaint. To their own age, therefore, their writings were, for the reason which we have already stated, productive of little immediate benefit: the practical teachers were unable to understand the force of their reasonings, and apply the principles which they developed. Things remained nearly in the same state, when the rational method of Du Marsais first made its appearance.

That it was considered an innovation of no slight importance,

may be inferred from the fact, that several of the most respectable journals of France, immediately engaged in the discussion of the subject. But his antagonists in the *Journal des Sçavans*, and the *Memoires de trévoux*, wrote like pedants, while Du Marsais answered them like a philosopher. Their weapons were prejudices, his solid arguments.

In such a contest, the result could not but be in favour of our author. Experience and reflection had concurred in assuring this accurate observer and interpreter of nature, that the methods commonly in use for teaching the Latin language were extremely erroneous, both in principle and in practice. Boys were furnished with grammars and dictionaries ; and, after some months spent in committing to memory the jargon of the former, were required by the sole aid of the latter, to proceed immediately to the production of *themes*, or compositions in the Latin language,—in other words to create something out of nothing. Where this monstrous absurdity did *not* exist, there was still to be found a long course of training in the abstruse rules of grammar, before it was deemed expedient to admit tyros, to the privilege of reading any of the Latin authors. And when this was at length granted,—when books whose subjects were level with their capacities, were put into their hands,—how were they to make themselves acquainted with their contents ? By the aid of a dictionary which professed to exhibit every *approved* word in the Latin language, the pupil was expected to surmount at least four species of obstacles, any one of which, was, in all probability, too great for his unassisted strength. He was first to divest the word in his text of all *prefixes* and *terminations*, in order to reduce it to the form of some word in his dictionary. This process often included addition as well as subtraction ; *diligentissimorum* was first to be curtailed down to *diligen*, an *s* must then be added to bring it to the shape, to which the definitions were adapted ; *rerum*, was by a similar process to be metamorphosed into *res* ; *reliquerat* must assume the form of *relinquo*, and *recepisse*, of *recipio*. We say nothing of such cases as *refero*, the nucleus of *retulerunt*, or of *nanciscor*, the word which must be found in order to decipher the meaning of *nacti fuerimus*. We know it will be said that the scholar was prepared by the study of his grammar to make these disentanglements, and that if not so he must be sent back to a revision of that edifying volume. We think it would be a great concession to grant that one in a hundred would in fact be prepared, after the usual course of mere grammar lessons, to unravel all the intricacies of inflection, and re-

duce the words of the easiest Roman authors to the forms of the dictionary. But grant, that by his knowledge of the grammar, or by a lucky *guess*, or by the aid of a more advanced school fellow, he had succeeded in hitting upon the right form, and that the language presented only one word of that form, (though the contrary would often be true,) what was the *next* process? If the word happened to have no more than one definition annexed, the lucky rogue had only to yoke the Latin to the corresponding word in his native language, and drive them, if nouns, through the beaten paths of number and case; if adjectives, through the additional cross ways of the three genders; and if verbs, through all the labyrinths of modes, tenses, numbers, and persons; embracing in some parts the further variations of genders and cases, until he finally arrived at the gaol from which he had originally started.

But if the word, found in his dictionary, happened to be one of those to which the lexicographer had given some twenty different significations, the first step in this part of his course would have been to determine which of all the Protean assembly ought to be preferred. And how would a lad of nine years old decide this puzzling question? By a reference to the context, or to the general scope of his author? But the method in question supposed him to know nothing but his grammar, nothing of the context, nothing of the drift of the composition, nothing of the relation, which the word before him bore to the other parts of the sentence. Here then was a third obstacle to be encountered, even before any use could be made of the success, (if such the result chanced to be,) of his two preceding efforts. The words of his classical authors remained in the same order of arrangement in which the writers had placed them; and that order was often wholly different from the customary construction of the scholar's vernacular language. To the original speaker or writer, this *inversion*, as it is called, occasioned no embarrassment, because it coincided with his habitual manner of thinking and speaking. His ear seized the slightest impression which indicated a grammatical structure, referred it to its proper purpose; and thus at the end of the longest and most intricate period, his mind readily comprehended the relation of the parts, and the meaning of the whole. Not so with the inexperienced youth, condemned to a long apprenticeship under those merciless task-masters, grammar and dictionary. To *his* mind, one arrangement was as natural as another, in reference to the language which he was learning; and, consequently, he

had no guide to the analytical structure, no key to the combined, literal meaning of his sentences. His task resembled what is sometimes practised in assemblages of full grown children, where from the letters of several alphabets, written on separate scraps of paper, one individual selects such, as, when rightly joined, form some word or phrase, which he has in mind, and gives them to another person to discover what word was intended. To a belle or beau in a tea party, whose stock of common place is exhausted, the devotion of half an hour to guessing *how to spell*, may deserve no very serious reproof, but rather commendation. To the school boy, however, whose every moment is invaluable, and whose respectability and happiness in life, are to depend on the reality, and solidity of his early acquisitions, the wasting of half a dozen years in a similar process of *guessing*, becomes a solemn and momentous consideration.

The fourth cause of perplexity was the want of directions for supplying ellipses. The embarrassment occasioned by those abbreviated expressions which prevail in every language, is well known, even to those who study only their native tonge. But when these contracted forms of speech are encountered in a *foreign* language, the difficulty is incalculably greater ; because neither the abridged expression is known by practice, nor the structure of the uncontracted phrase by analogy. To all these difficulties, might be added the *figurative sense* in which words and phrases are often employed, and which it requires an extensive knowledge of arts, sciences, manners and customs, to render intelligible.

Du Marsais did not come to the examination and removal of these difficulties, with those lights only, which his own understanding could furnish. He appears to have read attentively the works of the ancient grammarians, and the speculations of Locke and other philosophers ;—to have imbibed all that was most essential to a clear understanding of their principles, and with the aid of experience to have applied his knowledge of the human understanding to the formation of a system for teaching languages, which we think is destined to become universal. He did not, as Dugald Stewart seems to intimate,* propose to leave out of his course of instruction, a critical acquaintance with grammatical *minutiæ*. His language is,—'This method has two parts, practice and reasoning ; ("routine et raison ;") that is, the second part consists in giving reasons for what has

* Elements of Philosophy,—American edition, vol. III. p. 209, note.

been learned at first by practice. In the common methods, Latin is taught in a manner scarcely more rational than that of him who should undertake to teach a child to speak his mother tongue, merely by explaining the mechanical structure and operations of the organs of speech.'

In acquiring the Latin language, we must learn,—

1. The signification of Latin words.

2. The Latin *inversion* or transposition of words, which are not placed in the natural order of our own language.

3. The ellipses, or expressions in which some words are understood.

4. The Latinisms, or modes of expression peculiar to the Latin tongue.

The above particulars constitute what Du Marsais calls 'routine.' All these points are to be made clear, and a stock of words obtained, by using Latin authors reduced to the natural constructive order, with all ellipses, supplied, furnished with a literal interlinear version, together with a more free translation where the idiom requires it. But he by no means leaves the subject of language when the student has acquired, through *interlinear version*, a knowledge of these preliminary matters.

'When the pupil has been for some time exercised upon the "*routine*," above explained, he is taught the mechanism of Latin construction, by making, if we may so express it, an anatomical dissection, of every sentence, and giving a just and clear understanding of all the *parts of speech*, according to the principles of rational grammar.

'At an early period of his preliminary practice, and as soon as the pupil has begun to remark the different terminations which words receive according to different situations, he is taught the names commonly given to the several terminations of the same word. The purpose of their invention and application, is made known to him;—that is, he is taught to *decline* and *conjugate*, and at the same time, is, by insensible degrees, made practically acquainted with the *preliminaries of syntax*.'

As to the composition of themes,—Du Marsais by no means rejected this exercise from his course of instruction; but it formed, with him, a part much less conspicuous, than with most of his cotemporaries. He recommended that the language to be translated into Latin, should be that which had been previously translated *from* it. In this we recognize the principle of double translations so strongly recommended by Ascham, Locke, and others.

Du Marsais applied his system only to the Latin; but our readers will perceive, that if we substitute the word *Greek* for Latin in all that has been stated above, the principles which he recognized will be found equally applicable.

Much more is the *practical method* applicable to the teaching of *modern languages*. Indeed the best feature of that system which is now, under another name, gaining some favour in England, (though it obtained but a very equivocal approbation in this country,) are all to be found in the works of Du Marsais. To verify this assertion and to exemplify the principles of our author, we shall extract a short passage from the Prologue of Phædrus, arranged and translated as it stands in the volume before us; and shall then subjoin a passage from the edition of the first two books of Voltaire's Charles XII. noticed in a recent number of our Journal.

Texte. Æsopus auctor quam materiam repperit
Hanc ego polivi versibus senariis.
Duplex libelli dos est, quod risum movet,
Et quod prudenti vitam consilio monet.

Traduction. Esope est le premier auteur de ces fables, et je n'ai fait que leur prêter l'agrément de la poësie. Ce petit livre a deux avantages, il amuse, et il instruit. On rit de voir que les bêtes parlent entr' elles, et on tire de leurs discours et de leurs exemples, des avis salutaires pour la conduit de la vie.

CONSTRUCTION *selon l' ordre de la syntaxe simple.*

Ego (Phædrus) polivi (cum) versibus senariis (hanc) materiam
Moi Phedre j'aipoli avec des vers sénaires cette matiere
de six pieds le sujet

quam Æsopus auctor repperit. Dos hujus
qu' Esope auteur a trouvée. La dot de ce
inventée. L'avantage

libelli est duplex (propter) illud negotium (secúndùm) quod
petit livre est double à cause de cette chose, selon la quelle

(hic libèllus) movet risum et (propter illud secundùm)
ce petit livre excite le rire et à cause de ce

quod monet vitam à consilio prudenti.
que il avertit la vie par un conseil prudent.
il instruit
il aprend a vivre

The following sentences taken from the beginning of the sec-

ond book, exemplifies the arrangement in the history of Charles XII.

Trois puissans rois menaçoient ainsi l'enfance de
three powerful kings threatened thus the childhood of
three powerful kings threatened thus the childhood of
Charles Douze. Les bruits de ces preparatifs con-
Charles Twelve. The noises of these preparations dis-
Charles the Twelfth. The rumours of their preparations
sternoient la Swède, et alarmoient le counseil.
mayed the Sweden, and alarmed the council.
struck Sweden with consternation, and alarmed the council.

It will be observed that in this extract the construction of the two languages is so nearly alike, that no device is needed to make the French intelligible to a person who understands the English. But this is not always true of the French and English, and in some cases even the second translation would hardly render the precise sense of the words intelligible. We think, therefore, that the plan adopted by Mr. Bolmar, of marking the constructive order by *figures*, is to be preferred, not only as it saves the necessity of a second translation, which must be, to a very great extent, an exact, and we may add, a *vain* repetition of the first, but also because it renders the sense, on the whole, more clear. We say more *clear*, because, as to *elegance*, that is out of the question, in a translation as literal as the second line in this interlinear version ; it would also be out of place at this period of the student's advancement. For it must be remembered, that he is studying a *foreign* language, not cultivating the elegancies of his own.

We next quote a sentence from one of Mr. Bolmar's keys, remarking that the figures standing before parenthesis refer to the foot of the page ; while all the rest indicate the order of words in the *construction*, and that English words marked with asterisks are to be omitted.

Calypso ne pouvait se consoler du depart d' Ulysses;
Calypso not[2] could[1] herself[4] *[3]to console of the departure of Ulysses
Dans sa doleur elle se trouvait malheureuse d' etre
In her grief she herself found unhappy[2] (of to be)
immortal. Sa grotte ne resonnait plus de son chant
immortal. Her grotto no[2] resounded[1] more[3] (of)[3] her singing

* for[1]—in[2] being[3]—with.

les nymphes que la servaient n'osaient lui parler.
the nymphs who her waited upon not dared to her *to speak.
3 1 2 5 4
Key to Telem. p. 1.

Mr. Bolmar following the example of Du Marsais, furnishes his pupil with a separate volume for the recitation room, with nothing but the pure text of the original on which to rely for the performance of his task. From this he must make his analytical construction, give the precise signification of words, supply ellipses, omit redundancies, and make all the requisite substitutions. All these things the key, if properly used, will enable him to do. It will not, however, enable him to accomplish all these things, without much application ; so that all the pretences, which the opponents of this system have raised, about its tendency to foster indolence, will be found utterly groundless. We grant that if the exercises assigned to be learned by the key were to be no longer than could be *well* prepared, by the aid of the dictionary and grammar only, the pupil might find much more time for his other studies, than while following the old method. The obvious remedy against idleness, is to increase the amount of lessons, until all the time allotted to the exercise is found to be filled up. If you teach one scholar by the key, and another by dictionary and grammar, the two must, for more than one obvious reason, not be placed in the same class ; but if all be furnished with keys and the master understands his duty, there will manifestly be no necessity of leaving a moment unoccupied. There will, we admit, be less exercise of thumb and finger, less wear and tear of school books, on the system now recommended, than on that which has heretofore prevailed. But let not our worthy gentlemen of the *trade* be alarmed, for we do not assert, nor do we believe, that there will be less demand for books ; on the contrary we anticipate a great addition to the number of those who pursue the study of languages.

We are aware of the timidity and distrust with which some very respectable people will open the volumes whose titles we have placed at the head of this article. They have so often heard it asserted, and have by habit become so much accustomed to admit, that every thing in the shape of a *translation*, must be kept out of the student's reach, that it will require no little effort to eradicate this notion, and to substitute in its place the opinion which has been maintained by numbers of the greatest philosophers, and most accomplished teachers in Europe, for

the last two hundred years. The idea of an interlinear version will, moreover, be connected in their minds, with a recollection of the quackery which pretended to teach the French language to persons of whatever capacity, in *forty-eight lessons*. But by inspecting the two *keys*, observing the amount of their contents, and remembering that these are intended only to introduce the pupil to a knowledge of the *facts* of the language, which are afterwards to constitute the basis of his grammatical analysis,—they may easily assure themselves, that Mr. Bolmar makes no such absurd pretensions. Nor does he advance the assertion, which every man's experience contradicts,—that each word has one *sole, undeviating* meaning. Still, as in every language, each word has its *original* or *principal* signification, he appears to have studied to preserve, as far as possible, this primary sense; annexing, however, in his notes the proper English words, wherever secondary or figurative meanings in the original demand corresponding translations.

The objection, so often repeated, that *translations make scholars lazy*, is fully obviated by the manner in which the key and the pure text are severally used. We permit Mr. Bolmar to give his 'directions' in his own words.

'With the aid of this key, the pupil is to prepare the lesson assigned to him in his French Telemachus, so as to be able, when called upon, to give his teacher, *first* a literal translation of each word, and *secondly*, a free translation, or translation of *ideas* of each sentence. In preparing the translation of *ideas*, the pupil must bear in mind;—

'That an asterisk * is placed before words which are to be left out. That a parenthesis ( ) embraces the English expressions, which, in order to give a tolerable translation of *ideas*, of the French, must be changed into those English expressions at the bottom of the same page, which are indicated by the numbers placed outside of the parenthesis.

'That the numbers, placed before a word or words, in a parenthesis, and those placed before words, not in parenthesis, show the order of the words according to the English instruction; and,

'That sometimes, in order to complete the sense of a sentence, it has been necessary to add some English word; in that case it stands without any French word over it.'

We would suggest, as an improvement of this plan, that the words *substituted* should be placed in a line with those for which they are used, rather than at the foot of the page.

We hope we shall not be thought to deviate too far from the dignity of our craft, if we conclude this article by relating an incident, for the actual occurrence of which we can offer as voucher an ancient manuscript too much defaced to allow its date to be accurately deciphered; but which, we have strong reasons to suspect, is of the same age as the 'Old Play,' so often quoted by Sir Walter Scott.

About the year 16— a French priest, who had resided some time, as a missionary, among the Iroquois Indians, on the borders of Canada, and from *practice* had learned their language, became particularly attached to a young chief of that nation; and in order to repay the simple hospitality of his entertainer, engaged to convey him to France, and acquaint him with the wonders of its metropolis.

The priest had been educated in all the scholastic rigour of his time, and thought, of course, that his instruction of the savage must be commenced *secundum artem*. He therefore employed himself during the whole voyage in writing out, revising, correcting, and copying, a long string of most accurate and logical definitions of the various objects which he intended to exhibit and explain to his red companion. A country, a town, a street, a lane, an alley, a church, a convent, a palace, a museum, a college, a restaurateur, a comedy, an opera, a ballet; all these and at least a thousand other objects with which he was himself familiar, were defined with all the exactness which the Iroquois language allowed. Not a few of the more abstruse and technical terms, were, however necessarily in *French*, or other European languages.

The coast of 'beautiful France' was at length perceived, and the young warrior was indulging the fond anticipation of soon enjoying a sight of the far famed queen of cities. What was his disappointment, therefore, when set on shore at Havre, to find himself placed in an obscure dwelling on the borders of the town, where he was told he must remain until he had committed to memory all the definitions which his guide had provided! At first he applied himself with alacrity, in hopes of being speedily admitted to the promised gratification. Finding, however, that little progress was made in his task, and that he gained no ideas from this mass of verbiage, his natural inclination got the better of his curiosity, and he relaxed into indolence. His conductor flattered, exhorted, expostulated;—telling him that every thing here was learned in this way, and that he must not expect to obtain a knowledge of *things* before he knew their

names and definitions,—since the learned doctors of the Sorbonne would disapprove that *method* :—This argument, however, had but little weight with the son of nature. He soon grew moody and sullen ; evincing symptoms of strong disgust, sometimes exhibiting a disposition to vent his displeasure on the person of his guardian, and a still stronger inclination to consign to the flames, the manuscript containining the hated jargon, which, he found, was likely to furnish his sole employment for at least a year. Seeing such reluctance, on the part of his *protégé*, to persevere in this painful toil, the priest recollecting the manner in which he had himself acquired a knowledge of the Iroquois language and customs, at length resolved, in defiance of the didactic principles of his *Alma Mater*, to convey his pupil immemiately to the city, and show him *things* themselves, instead of tormenting him longer with mere verbal descriptions. Arrived in Paris, he exhibited its wondrous magnificence, its social haunts, and its ever varying amusements. The curiosities of that world in miniature, were constantly opening to the astonished and delighted senses of the chief, a wider and wider field for contemplation. The gloom of discontent soon disappeared from his brow. The acquisition of knowledge was mingled with all his pleasures and occupations ; so that, instead of spending a year in conning over unintelligible words and propositions, he, in the course of one month, became perfectly acquainted with ten times as many things as the priest had thought of defining.

The learned doctors met in conclave and seriously debated whether they should publicly reprimand the priest who had allowed so flagrant a violation of the *leges didacticæ* established by their ancient college. One of their number, more rigid than the rest, even hinted that the offender deserved condign punishment ; alleging that, if, in one case, things were allowed to be studied before their definitions had been committed to memory, the example would become contagious, and men would soon arrive at the enormity of commencing the study of language before that of grammar ; and he cited Melancthon to prove that the man who should be guilty of such a practical heresy, would be a fit subject for the gibbet.

Another learned professor shrewdly remarked, that the change which his friend had deprecated might possibly occur, but that so long as the influence of monastic institutions remained, the prejudice to which he alluded was not likely to gain any important ascendency, and that the less noise they made about it the better. This opinion was finally acceded to. In the mean time,

the American prosecuted his inquiries, became a proficient in the language of the country, and at length having gratified his curiosity, returned home enriched with information for the amusement of his family, and for the instruction and improvement of his nation.

Elements of Chemistry for the use of Schools and Academies, by ANDREW FYFE, *Lecturer on Chemistry to the Edinburgh School of Arts. With Additions and Alterations by John W. Webster, M. D. Erving Professor of Chemistry in Harvard University.* Boston. Richardson and Lord. 1827. 12mo. pp. 394.

AMONG the various perplexities connected with the business of teaching that is not the least, which attends the selection of books to be used by the pupils. Such is the zeal for improvement, and so ready are people to take new things for an improvement, that he who refuses to introduce every new book promising to be better than an old must incur the risk of being thrown into the rear ground of his fellows. Yet who that is accustomed to hear the complaints of parents and others about changes and expenses, will not have some qualms about introducing every new work that is offered? Add to this, who will undertake the office of umpire, balance the pretending claims, and decide which book may and ought to be used? In no department, perhaps, have these perplexities been multiplied to a greater extent than in those of *natural science* and *natural history*. To cheapen, and reduce to the level of the humblest capacity, as well as bring to the door of every individual, one would suppose had been the aim of authors and publishers of books on these subjects in these improving times. And to such an extent has the system been carried that if men are not philosophers and naturalists, the fault must be charged to some other cause than the want of books adapted to every degree of capacity —for from the A B C of science, up to highest point to which genius has reached, there is scarcely a conceivable space, for the filling of which, some book has not been prepared.

The annunciation of a new work on a subject, about which treatises almost countless in number have been written, may seem to come with an ill grace, when there are so many good ones already in existence. Books on *chemistry* have been multiplied till it is scarcely possible to tell the amount. And if the ad-

vance of the science is to be estimated by the books that are published, one may sit down in despair of keeping pace with the progress so rapid are its strides. While, however, it is not of course true that the appearance of a new book is a proof of such an advance in the science as forms a necessity for a publication, yet it does not follow because there are already many in existence that there is no occasion for another, particularly if designed for *academies* and *intermediate schools*. We say for academies, for why should they not have their peculiar books as well as colleges and universities? If they are to occupy a place in the scale of institutions for education, they ought to be furnished with the means, and among these, a class of books suited to their wants is certainly not to be overlooked.

The book whose title we have announced is intended for institutions of this description, and also as a sort of manual for such as are engaged in manufacturing. That such a book was needed will not be doubted by any one acquainted with the state of our intermediate schools, and with the public feeling in relation to the course of studies to be pursued. Though there are many books written professedly for the use of such schools, yet a plain, practical, treatise, embracing the most important principles of the science, with their application to the purposes of life, was no where to be found within a compass suited to their state. Though many attempts have been made, and though in many of these attempts, the authors deserve credit for their exertions, yet it cannot be denied that there was room for improvement.

The work under consideration makes its appearance under circumstances that give it a just claim to attention. It was originally published by a lecturer in a distinguished institution of the city of Edinburgh, and has been republished in this country by a gentleman deservedly eminent in science and a professor in our most distinguished university. Originally prepared for a *mechanic institution*, it needed some alteration to adapt it to the state of our intermediate schools. These alterations, it has been the aim of the American editor to make, and with these, the book is offered to the public.

In offering our opinion of its merits, we do not hesitate to say that it deserves high commendation. We do not claim that it is perfect, but if it has faults, it has many counter-balancing excellences. Owing to its being prepared for the object mentioned above, it has not so much of the scientific dress as might be expected in a work designed particularly for schools, nor are all the subjects introduced that are to be found in some of

the larger works, or which appertain properly to the science. The writer's aim seems to have been, not to attempt to say all that might be said, but what he deemed most important. Such parts of the science as can be most readily turned to account have been introduced, while those which serve chiefly to gratify curiosity are but slightly noticed. The article on caloric; that on bleaching with chlorine; the manufacture of glass and earthen ware, together with tanning leather, and dyeing cloth are explained in such a manner as must afford satisfaction to every reader. There is also a good description of many important articles of chemical apparatus, and of some, that have never been introduced into the smaller books. Among the additions made by Dr. Webster, we would notice the sections on affinity, and the nomenclature of modern chemistry which are well explained; and there are various operations connected with the arts that are well illustrated both in the theoretic and the practical part. For ourselves we could have wished to see the science spread out in a more formal manner on the plan adopted by Mr. Brande, and we are disposed to think that such a method might have been adopted with benefit both to the scholar and the artisan. Some parts might have been abridged; some things might have been struck out, and others added so that there would have been a gain without swelling the book to an inconvenient size. Had there been also a reference to more experiments, we think it would have been a useful addition. But, on the whole, we regard the book as a valuable acquisition to the chemical student, and do not hesitate to rank it among the best of those that have been prepared to be used in our intermediate schools.

The standing and character of the gentleman who has published this edition, are a guaranty to the public that it is not a work of mere pompous profession. The service he has on a former occasion done for our colleges, in publishing an improved edition of Brande's Manual,* entitles him to the thanks of all who have occasion to teach, or who wish to learn something of the science. The present attempt to accommodate intermediate schools, deserves equal approbation, and we trust will be duly appreciated. We have written our remarks not for the sake of finding fault, nor for the sake of unqualified approbation. Having had occasion to use the book, we have found it both instructive and interesting. And we do believe that every instructer

* Reviewed at p. 554 of vol. I.—*Ed.*

who proposes to teach this science in his school will be gratified in examining this book. If we mistake not, he will find it a valuable substitute for almost any other that has been used in academies or similar schools. It is a book which comes opportunely at this time for the manufacturer, and it is one which every person connected with the chemical part of manufacturing will find of great service in his business.

INTELLIGENCE.

[The new arrangement of the contents of our work will render it convenient to place those articles which relate to common and primary schools in the latter part of each Number; while those which relate to collegiate or intermediate institutions, such as academies &c. will follow the Reviews. This division of the various stages of education will be favourable, we think, to correct and systematic information regarding seminaries of every description, whether public or private. We are happy to commence this arrangement with an article so deserving of attention as the following. It presents the prospectus of one of the numerous private efforts recently made for the advancement of what may be called superior education, as embracing a higher range of studies than has been usual at academies and similar schools. The sentiments expressed in this prospectus are, as our readers will perceive, those of one familiar with the business of education, and with the dispositions and wants of the young. We need not particularize those ideas, which, in this and many other documents connected with the progress of education, indicate the rising demand for good instruction in whatever is likely to be useful in life. We prefer leaving the prospectus to address itself in its own language to such as peruse it, and would only express a hope that the judicious care for health and happiness, which is manifest in this instance, may operate extensively with the effect of good example.]

BROOLINE GYMNASIUM.

From the Prospectus.

Believing the existence of several irresponsible tribunals in a school to be incompatible with the good government and greatest improvement of its members, it is the intention of the instructor to employ no assistants except in the modern languages—he can, therefore, of necessity, receive but a limited number.

As it is intended that the physical recources shall be developed at the same time with those of the mind, the enclosures have been made to embrace several acres of land, which are to be occupied chiefly as a play-ground and by apparatus for gymnastic exercises. It is unnecessary, at this day, to discuss the necessity of regular exercise to the health. It is too late to tell us that children find sufficient exercise in their plays, without any systematic course of instruction. And, indeed, setting aside the fact that but few of the muscles are called into action in the ordinary sports of children, gymnastics is believed to be very important in its effects on the mind. There is no stronger motive to exertion than the conviction of gradual and constant improvement, whether in relation to the body or the mind, and a conviction also, that this improvement has been the result of repeated efforts. In the exercises of the gymnasium, the boy feels every day an increase of physical strength—he has palpable evi-

dence that he can do more than he could the preceding day, and he feels assured that what he cannot master to day, will, by repeated efforts, be entirely in his power tomorrow. The same reasoning, and the same conclusions he will naturally and necessarily carry with him in his mental efforts; and it needs but little argument to show that the mind which is thus convinced of its own powers, of its constantly increasing recources, must make a proportionate advancement.

Besides, it is essential to the happiness as well as to the greatest improvement of pupils, that all distance, all reserve, on their part should be removed—that they should rather look upon their instructer, as one who is deeply interested in their improvement and happiness, than as one who is appointed merely to listen to their repetitions of a formal lesson. By constantly associating with him on familiar terms, in exercises, which, in themselves, have a tendency to promote cheerfulness of spirits and kind feelings, they gradually learn to connect him with the recollection of scenes which have afforded them pleasure, and thus insensibly to regard him and themselves as sustaining toward each other the relation of parent and children, with a mutual obligation to respect each other's feelings and promote each other's good.

In pursuance of these views a building has been erected in which gymnastic apparatus has been fitted up, and in which the boys will follow a regular course of exercises, every day, under the immediate direction of the instructer.

A piece of ground has been set apart expressly for a play-ground where those games which combine healthful exercise and amusement will always be encouraged. Frequent bathing, too, is deemed essential to health—a room for this purpose has, accordingly, been provided, to which access will be permitted as often as shall be thought expedient. An apartment is also reserved to be occupied as a reading-room and library—which will be a room of general resort for the boys when not engaged in school or at their out-door exercises, and in which will be deposited a collection of books for general reading, selected with express reference to the wants of boys of different ages and different degrees of advancement.

As respects the government of his school, the instructer intends that it shall be parental—he will appeal to his pupils' reason rather than to their fears—will be guided by a knowledge of each boy's peculiar temper and susceptibility of impressions, rather than by a code of laws, which shall award, in all cases, pre-established penalties to prescribed offences. Corporal punishment, it is believed, may be entirely dispensed with, and a parental influence substituted for the distant severity of the master. Let every boy be made to feel, that on his own conduct depends the estimation in which he is held by his instructer and his classmates, and there can be little danger of his allowing himself to sacrifice it.

The course of instruction will involve a knowledge of every thing necessary for the preparation of boys for college or for the counting room, including the higher branches of mathematics and their applications, and the modern languages—in this latter department the instructer will be assisted by native teachers. Those who commence, at this school, the study of the languages, whether ancient or modern, will begin with the use of literal interlineal translations, and after having well fixed in the mind the signification of most of the common words of the language, will study its construction by the use of the grammar.

Apparatus will be provided for experiments in natural philosophy and chemistry, of which sciences the most important principles will be communicated in familiar lectures, to all who are sufficiently advanced to profit by them.

In all branches of learning the instruction will be as practical as possible. The instructer will not consider his duty as performed by listening two or three times a day to the conning of an appointed task. He will, in all possible cases, dispense with the use of text books, and give instruction orally, believing that what is communicated by the teacher, and illustrated in such simple terms as a

knowledge of the difficulties of the subject, and the capacities of his hearers may suggest, will be listened to with more interest and advantage than the too often dry and abstruse speculations of authors—not that authors of literary and scientific works and compilers of school books have not communicated their ideas clearly, but because young minds, in order to understand a subject fully and distinctly, require that it should be held up to them in a variety of lights—that principles, in order to make a lasting impression, should be many times repeated and illustrated in the most familiar terms. This is particularly practicable in Arithmetic, and some of the higher branches of Mathematics, on account of the admirable facilities which inductive reasoning has of late been made to furnish in this department. Learners have heretofore been required to commit to memory certain general principles, without knowing whence they were deduced, and then to apply them mechanically to particular cases. This method will be entirely rejected. Particular examples are to be proposed to learners, and they are then to be allowed to follow their own reason to legitimate conclusions—conclusions which they perceive to be unavoidable and certain. These deductions are no more nor less than the general principles or rules with which the old system sets out.

Those pupils who form a part of his family are to be under the care of the instructer at all hours. Parents may be assured that their children are not to be dismissed after the regular exercises of the day, as of no further interest to him—they are to be watched over at their plays and recreations, as well as at their severer studies—are to be guided in their general reading—are not to be indulged for the sake of quieting their importunities, nor to be denied any innocent indulgences for the sake of teaching them a blind acquiescence in the absolute authority of a master. On the contrary, the instructer will endeavour, by participating in whatever concerns them, to make them feel that what gives them pleasure will always interest himself—to show them that the relation they sustain towards him involves not only the acquisition of a knowledge of books, but a knowledge of the world—the knowledge and the practice of what is manly and generous in conduct and character.

There will be two vacations in the year, one in May and June, and the other in September, each of three weeks.

Terms, $200 per annum for Instruction, Board, Washing, and Mending.—Bedstead, bed, and bedding, to be furnished by the parents.

L. V. HUBBARD.

Brookline, April 1st, 1828.

HIGH SCHOOL OF BUFFALO, NEW-YORK.

Extracts from the Prospectus.

THAT the science of Education, within the last half century, has received astonishingly great improvements, every one conversant with the subject will readily allow:—and among the most important of these improvements, none have shown so conspicuously—have tended so effectually to disseminate knowledge generally—to call out the latent energy of the youthful mind, and to produce that ardent ambition and laudable emulation so particularly desirable among all classes of scholars, as the method of Monitorial or Mutual Instruction. This mode of instruction, we venture to assert, is the only one which is philosophically adapted to the budding talents of the youthful genius, and while we are sanguine in the avowal of our belief, we are fully convinced, that

by this mode, instruction can be more thoroughly and effectively conveyed, and education more easily diffused and generally disseminated among the great mass of scholars, than can possibly be otherwise effected by any known method. Our mode of instruction, therefore, will be Monitorial.

As to the anticipated extent of erudition to be here acquired, we intend, in our plan, to commence our instructions with the Alphabet, and the rudiments of Language, and to pursue a course of Literature, through the higher walks of Philology and Belles-Lettres; and to communicate a thorough knowledge of the most refined Modern and Living Languages, as well as those of ancient Greece and Rome.

Our contemplated plan, respecting Science, embraces the first notions of numbers, and the first mental and mechanical operations of their representatives, figures; proceeds progressively through the various branches; extends through the higher Mathematics, and to an intimate acquaintance with the principles of Natural and Experimental Philosophy. The general outline of our course here proposed, is embraced in three departments, which we term Introductory, Junior, and Senior.

We do not indulge, however, in the expectation that every scholar who is admitted a member of the High School, will go through a regular course; nor is any particular term assigned as the *minimum* for admission; but each will be admitted according to the wishes of parents or guardians; and to those more advanced students, who have little time to prepare for entering on the active pursuits and business of life, we wish to render our High School, a Technological Institute, from whence the pupil might be transferred to the busy scenes of the world, actually fitted for that sphere in which he is destined to move.

The branch of the High School for the education of Girls, is graduated into the same number of departments; and, in addition to the solid and useful branches, and the advantages in the Senior Department, of the lectures in Chemistry, Mineralogy, Natural History, Natural Philosophy, &c., they will have opportunities, according to the patronage of the Institution, of improving themselves in Drawing, Painting, Music, and other ornamental branches necessary to complete Female Education.

The funds necessary for erecting suitable buildings, during the ensuing season, are already subscribed; in the meantime, as a temporary resort, convenient rooms are procured, and furnished, in which the undertaking is commenced; and, from the healthy and eligible location of our village, the great want of Scientific and Literary Institutions in the surrounding country; the moderate charge for tuition; the known reputation of the Principal, Mr. Jonathan Dodge, and the confidence in his appointment of able Professors and assistant Teachers; we anticipate no small share of that liberal patronage, which an enlightened public is wont to bestow.

Buffalo, N. Y. Feb. 1, 1828.

Josiah Trowbridge, Reuben B. Heacock, Heman B. Potter, Thomas C. Love, John G. Camp, William Hodge, Henry Kip, Ebenezer Johnson, Joseph Stocking, John B. Hicks, Barent I. Staats, William Ketchum, George Coit, Elijah D. Efner, Abner Bryant, Trustees of the Buffalo High School, Association.

Extracts from the By-Laws of the Buffalo High School Association.

Section 3. Registers shall be kept under the direction of the Principal, in which shall be entered the names of all the scholars, the date of their admission, department, promotion, and discharge from school.

Section 4. The Principal is to appoint and employ such professors, or assistant teachers, in the several departments, as may be deemed necessary for the good reputation and rapid advancement of the school—warranted by the pecuniary prosperity of the Institution.

Section 5. Lectures on Chemistry, Mineralogy, Natural History, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, and other Sciences, will be delivered at the High

School, which the scholars in the senior department may attend, free of expense.

Section 6. An annual public examination of the High School, shall take place by the direction and arrangement of the Principal, under the auspices of the board of Trustees.

Section 8. The exercises of each department of the High School shall commence with reading a chapter, or part thereof, from the sacred scriptures, but no catechism or instruction in the peculiar tenets of any particular religious denomination whatever, shall be introduced or used in the High School.

Section 10. Regular attendance of the scholars will be insisted on, and records kept, under direction of the Principal, of the attendance or absence of each throughout the term or session.

Section 14. The Buffalo High School shall be in session the amount of forty four weeks in each year, and may be divided into two sessions or four quarters, at the discretion of the Principal.

Section 15. An extra charge, from the term prices hereafter mentioned, may be made, for the French, Spanish, German, or Italian language: and in the Female department, for Music, Drawing, Painting, Lace or fine Needle Work.

Section 17. The course of Instruction, shall be as follows:—

Introductory Department. Alphabet; Spelling; Reading; Writing on Slates; first notions of Drawing and of Numbers; Elements of Arithmetic, mental and mechanical as far as through the first four rules; Elementary branches of Grammar and Geography; some branches of Natural History; Gymnastics; and whatever else may be deemed proper or important.

Junior Department. Former studies continued; Writing, on Paper; Grammar; Geography, principally by Maps; Arithmetic through Proportion; Elocution; continuance of Natural History; Linear Drawing; use of the Globes; Gymnastics; and other branches, if deemed expedient.

Senior Department. Former studies completed; Reading; Spelling by dictation; Writing; ornamental Penmanship; Arithmetic complete, with all the *rationale* of its principles; Grammar and Geography complete; projection and delineation of Maps; Book-Keeping; Algebra; Geometry; Linear Drawing and descriptive Geometry; plane and spherical Trigonometry; Astronomy; Mensuration; Navigation; Surveying, with a course of Civil and Topographical Engineering; Conic Sections; Dialling; Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish languages; Ancient Geography; Antiquities; History; Elocution; Composition; Chemistry; Mineralogy; Natural Philosophy; Gymnastics; with such other branches of science or language as may be required; and in the Female department, Fine and Ornamental Needle Work; Music; Drawing, and Painting.

Section 18. The payment of the price of Tuition shall be made to the Principal in advance, and on the admission of any scholar after the commencement of a term, the tuition shall be calculated and paid to the next regular term day.

Section 19. The price of tuition, except as specified in the 15th section of this article, shall not be varied from the following rates.—Introductory Department $3; Junior $5; Senior $7; Fuel in the Junior and Senior Departments, 25 cents—Pens and Ink in the Junior and Senior departments, 37 1-2 cents per quarter.

MOUNT PLEASANT CLASSICAL INSTITUTION, AMHERST, MASS.

[The following account of this flourishing school is taken from an Exposition of the plan of instruction and discipline &c. The views of education expressed in this interesting paper have been formed with much judicious caution, and, with a very evident regard to the feelings and the character of youth. The

scheme of instruction is liberal and elevated in its arrangements; and those who have planned it have commenced their undertaking with no ordinary degree of zeal, and with a very flattering success.]

In a Prospectus issued in January 1827, were briefly exhibited the design and plan of this Institution. The classes in the various departments were organized on the 1st of June, and the chapel dedicated on the following Sabbath. The number of Instructers is at present *nine*,—of pupils, many of whom have entered on a course of study embracing several years, *sixty-eight*.

As at the 'Institut d' Education' at Hofwyl, Switzerland, and the Academic and Commercial Gymnasia of Germany, boys are received at a very early age. Those at present with us are from the age of *four* to *sixteen*,—are members of one little community, of *one family*, in which, so far as possible, the *law of love*, exercised in a constant supervision extending to every-day thought and action, is made to supersede the necessity of a severer police. On this subject, lest we should seem to speak of an ideal state of things, we invite the strictest scrutiny.

It may not be irrevelant to remark in a single word, that the object of this Institution is to combine the highest advantages of public and private education by a liberal, and necessarily expensive provision of instruction in the various departments of Ancient and Modern Learning, Commercial Theory, &c.—by a regular and systematic course of physical culture in the Gymnasium, and that moral and religious influence which contributes to fit man for the high purposes of existence.

Our business is to gird the human spirit for the warfare of life, to develope and direct its sterner and nobler energies,—to 'plant germs whose fruit is for eternity.'

The history of our little commonwealth, while it has always kept before us the fact, that we have to do with the elements of human nature, has corroborated an opinion which we have long cherished, that, since the character receives its impress, in a very great degree, from the circumstances and influences under which it is formed, if a community, secluded from the contagion of indolent and vicious example, be pervaded by a pure and elevated sense of *right*, and a chastened and well directed enthusiasm, it will exhibit very much of the excellent and lovely of character. And here we would be distinctly understood as opening for our *text-book* the Christian scriptures—as knowing and teaching no other morality than that of the Bible. The practical business of education, contemplating as it does, the developement and culture of the intellect, of the moral affections, of the physical nature of man, looks only on the title page of the volume, when it forgets his higher destinies. The first impulse given to the human soul should recognize the *spirit* of the *Christian Philosophy;* the simple principles of the science of Heaven should suggest the earliest motives of action; the serious, yet rational and cheerful piety of the Bible, during the whole period of Education, should be regarded as the crowning grace of character; and this we maintain is most entirely consistent with a refined and cherished taste for intellectual pleasures. The mind which has been nurtured in the chastening and purifying atmosphere of *truth*, may not indeed bend in idolatrous worship at the altar of the old philosophy, nor chant its morning and evening song in the temple of Grecian beauty; but so long as the principles of beauty, the modifications of emotion and sentiment and the laws which govern our intellectual operations remain the same, it will never cease to admire the gifted genius of other ages and nations, embodied in the treasures of classic literature.

In intellectual culture we deem the philosophy of Bacon that of common sense—thus proceeding from particulars to generals—advancing from elementary principles through the luminous path of truth, the mind, accustomed from the vividness and clearness of its own perceptions, to an intimate and entire acquaintance with its powers, learns to confide with safety in its own operations. It should be the business of this culture to acquaint the mind with itself—to

impart 'quickness of investigation, patience of research, the power of grappling with difficulties—accuracy of thought and clearness of reasoning—to form the judgment, refine the taste, instil delicacy of feeling, vivid perception of poetical beauty and moral excellence'—in a word, to place all the faculties of the intellect under the control of a well regulated attention. Every effort of instruction should, we conceive, have a bearing, more or less direct, upon these results. The mind will then take care of itself—limiting its pupilage, not by the enactments of the Senatus Academicus, but by the boundaries of human life—its efforts, not by the known boundaries of human science, but by the wide range of possibility. Happily the mind is so constituted, that in acquiring this self-control it furnishes itself with rich and various knowledge.

The Gymnasium, which, from the period of the Grecian and Roman Palæstræ to the times of Mercurialis and Jahn, had hardly been a subject of speculation, has come at length to claim its appropriate place in the business of education. Nothing, we conceive, can be more evident to common sense reflection, than that the equilibrium of all the powers, which the very constitution of our nature suggests as of the last importance in the formation of character, must be sacrificed, without an early, systematic and contined course of physical culture. Of this we are most fully convinced. The lessons of our Gymnastic grounds, therefore, under the direction of a Master, are, during nearly the whole year, as regular as those of the class rooms. From this course we have already realized the most beneficial results, in every case of debilitated constitution.

There can be no doubt, we think, that the Government of such a community, with its own public sentiment, and it own atmosphere of moral feeling, should be, in its grand features, strictly parental. No other, than the guardian spirit of parental influence, extending its vigilant, yet affectionate supervision to the whole history of sentiment and action,—blending its holier sympathies at the altar of the common Father—yet sustaining its own prerogative by a mild, but unwavering decision, that is rather felt than communicated by language, can successfully regulate and chasten the elastic and buoyant temperament of youth. There is an avenue to 'the heart's deep fount of feeling' which we endeavour to make familiar—for it opens 'the treasures of the snow'—and the first characters drawn there should be—affection—duty.

A strictly parental government, will, however, if the family be numerous, exercise discretion in reference to the details of its executive. In the exercise of such discretion, the nature of circumstances—and the operation of the laws and motives of human action under given circumstances will be carefully considered.

The genius of the free institutions of this country developes the republican principles of our nature at a very early period of life. It were erroneous however to conclude, on the one hand, that the American youth, therefore, are in all respects competent to govern themselves; or on the other, that it offers no violence to these principles, to subject them entirely to despotic power. We would draw neither conclusion; but from the fact, since we conceive it such, receive a practical suggestion,—making our first object to produce and sustain a correct tone of public sentiment—then to introduce—always under modifications perfectly understood—the republican spirit only so far as manifestly contributes to the best good. This, it may be allowed us, perhaps, to say we think we have done.

As every feature of our executive details is perfectly simple, we introduce them here rather as an illustration of the preceding remarks. From the whole body a Class of Honor is formed, consisting only of those who are distinguished by unexceptionable deportment, a just sense of right, and unimpeached moral courage. These are consequently for the most part from the Senior boys. They are proposed, from time to time, by ourselves, as we deem them eligible, and are received or rejected by their fellows, according to their estimation of their qualifications. From this 'Class of Honor,' thus constituted, an offender is, at

our discretion, according to the nature of the offence,* allowed to elect his jury of twelve. These are assembled, (one of us always presiding and conducting the examination)—the evidence, or which is more common, if the charge be well grounded, the frank avowal of the accused, is heard—opportunity taken, while the individual is present, for remarks upon the nature of the offence, the verdict rendered—and if guilty, the punishment awarded. The right is always retained by us of mitigating the verdict, or of pardon. The result has been in every instance, though these sessions have been of rare occurrence, most satisfactory. The individual sees in the verdict, when punished, the frown of public sentiment—the strong expression of offended right, which cannot fail to be understood and felt. It will have been perceived, however, that while we have entire confidence in the operation of these principles, thus modified, we regard the happiest feature of such a government the precautionary and controlling influence of the Law of Love.

On the subject of motives, we have already intimated, that the highest class is to be derived from our highest and most sacred relations;—the next in order, as we conceive, are those arising from the filial relation. Allied to this class is that which has to do with the public sentiment.

In respect to the first—the one pervading impression of an omniscient and omnipresent Deity as inculcated by the breathing eloquence of nature—the 'line upon line,' read out at the altar of our morning and evening solemnities—the faithful and affectionate preaching of the word—the '*Numen adest*,' which should appear over the classic desk—all should conspire to excite the highest efforts of intellect, while they form the heart to whatever is exalted and refined in sentiment—pure and ennobling in christianized human sympathy.

The two latter classes of motives, we conceive, are also of great importance—those derived from the filial relation—and those which arise from the relation sustained to the community. Hence a system which shall bring distinctly before the eye of the parent and instructers;—which shall at periodical seasons present to the body of pupils, an exact transcript of daily individual history, both as to conduct and recitation, rarely fails powerfully to influence the will. This we realize in our system of weekly reports.

The whole number of boys, according to the relative situation of their dormitories, for purposes of inspection, is divided into five sections. Over each is placed a Præfect, whose duty it is to notice any departure from established laws of correct deportment. The report of each, dating its first items on Friday evening, closes the week on the following Friday afternoon. An abstract of the whole is presented on Friday evening, at the Meeting of Instructers, by the Auditor of Reports. At this meeting, the Reports from the several departments of instruction are presented by the gentlemen sustaining these departments. The whole, after careful examination, are referred to the close of the class duties at 12 o'clock on the following day, (Saturday,) when all the pupils are assembled in the chapel for the hearing of Reports and a familiar lecture, upon conduct, manners, &c. At this session, occupying usually an hour and a half, the abstracts of the reports are publicly read, and when necessary, commented upon. After being thus disposed of, they are passed into volumes prepared for the purpose, and always accessible to parents and friends. Parents are expected to request from their sons faithful abstracts from these reports always made under the direction of the Clerk.†

* Only the few more serious offences are thus referred—others always decided at once by ourselves.

† The principle on which the class Report is made, should be fully in the possession of parents.—A maximum, 3, is fixed upon, representing the most perfect recitation or exercise which it is in the power of the best talents of the sections, the stage of advancement being considered, to exhibit. The degree of imperfection is represented by fractional deductions—thus, 2. 9.——2. 6.

There are other motives, to which, in a very few cases, we have occasion to resort. When the current of moral feeling has been poisoned, and the intellectual furniture wrecked by previous injudicious management, the higher incentives to exertion fail of effect. In such cases, (which happily have been with us rare,) we are willing patiently to range the whole world of means and motives, excluding only those of a strictly severe corporal nature. If, after a short period these are unsuccessful, our only course is *dismission*. The principle, that the many should not be corrupted by the individual, forbids that we should continue a boy of this character for a long experiment. The most powerful of all influences in such cases, is strong public sentiment, reprobating every species of vice in mental or moral habit.

While we sincerely commiserate the parent who is afflicted with such a son, we feel obliged to be understood, as rejecting every application of this kind—as requiring the most undoubted testimonials from the instructers from whose hands candidates for admission come to us—with a frank statement of the intellectual and moral habits from parents and guardians themselves.

[The whole pamphlet from which the preceding paragraphs are extracted, abounds in useful thoughts on education; and we regret the impossibility of transcribing it throughout, in our present number. We shall return to it, hower, at our next opportunity.—It is documents, we think, such as this and the two which precede it, that afford the most satisfying evidence of the progress of general sentiment on the subject of education, as a most efficient means of promoting human happiness.]

NOTICES.

WORKS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

Johnson's English Dictionary, as improved by Todd and abridged by Chalmers; with Walker's pronouncing Dictionary, combined. To which is added Walker's Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture Proper Names. Boston. Charles Ewer and T. Harrington Carter. 1828. 18mo. pp. 1156.

We have, at present, barely space to mention this valuable work. It commends itself to extensive patronage and general use, by the sanction of the eminent names which it bears upon its title; and to the American public it comes with the additional recommendation of the editorial care of Mr. J. E. Worcester.

This Dictionary seems to us decidedly the most useful and satisfactory that has yet been offered, for general use, in our language. It combines advantages too numerous to be adequately mentioned in the room we can afford in our present number, but to which we shall take occasion to revert, in detail, at a future opportunity. We are glad to observe that a school edition of this work is in preparation, corresponding no doubt, in merit, to the larger dictionary, now under notice. We would leave this work with the expression of our hope that all teachers who give instruction in the English language, will avail themselves of its aid.

Phædri Fabulæ Expurgatæ. Accedunt Tractatus de Versu Iambico, Notulæ Anglicæ, et Quæstiones. In usum Scholæ Bostoniensis. Bostoniæ; Sumptibus Hilliard, Gray, Little, et Wilkins. 1827. 12mo. pp. 130.

To teachers who value the assistance of neat and accurate editions of the books used in classical instruction, this little volume will be very acceptable. It forms another useful contribution to the improvement of education in the department in which the school from which it proceeds is so justly eminent. By the labours of Mr. Gould, the Principal of that seminary, and his assistant, Mr. Leverett, preparatory education has received the aid of several excellent books, among which our readers will recollect, as mentioned in former notices, a revised edition of Adams' Grammar, an improved Ovid and Liber Primus. Besides which is a valuable edition of Virgil, and a Juvenal now in press.

It would, we think, be a great benefit to classical schools generally, if similar editions of all the preparatory authors were to follow the books already published. With a few honourable exceptions, the common editions of these works are in a very bad condition both as to text and typography.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

Love of Admiration, or Mary's Vist to B——. A Moral Tale. By a Lady. New Haven. A. H. Maltby. 1828. 18mo. pp. 160.

This volume belongs properly to the class of minor religious novels, and will fall more properly under the notice of the religious periodicals of the day, than of a work devoted to the general object of education. We may take the opportunity, however, to say that it is neatly executed, is written with evident talent, and aims at a good moral lesson.

A History of the Kings and Queens of France, with Engravings representing them in their Costumes. Translated from the French. Boston. Samuel G. Goodrich. 1828. pp. 140.

This interesting book forms a kind of biographical chronology, applied to the history of France. It is intended for young children, to whom chronology is a dry study without the assistance of biography.

The engravings which are generally executed with excellent taste and a spirited expression, form a very useful part of the work. They are intended to give a definitive notion of the costume of the successive sovereigns, as will be understood by reference to p. 138, where the progress of fashion is delineated in a very expressive style. The work is not, of course, intended to furnish a full history of France, but a selection of the most striking and important events, as connected with the lives and actions of the monarchs. It resembles, in this respect, Scott's Tales of a Grandfather, but is more brief in its incidents as it is designed chiefly for chronological purposes; while much general information connected with the progress of society, is given in separate chapters, which cannot fail to prove very instructive as well as entertaining to young readers.

COMMON EDUCATION.*

ADVANTAGES OF GENERAL EDUCATION.

[From the First Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, to the Legislature of Maryland, Dec. 1827.]

'*The best service that can be rendered to a country, next to giving it liberty, lies in diffusing the mental improvement, equally essential to the preservation and enjoyment of the blessing.*'

Such are the words of the sage of Montpelier, addressed to the writer of this report, and no freeman who is qualified to preserve and enjoy his proper title will attempt to impugn the great truth which they assert; and to pursue the language of another patriot, and distinguished philanthropist and orator, in reference to the means which human wisdom can devise for augmenting the public virtue and intelligence, it may be truly said that, these powerful agents summon to their aid all those internal improvements, which cheapening, expediting, and facilitating the transmission of every species of moral, political, and social intelligence, whether by books, letters, or friendly communion, supply wings to knowledge, and winnow its healthful influence over all the dwellings and pursuits of man—guiding and quickening the operations of laborious industry, and ingenious art—solacing the rest of wearied diligence; supplying with thought the vacuity of suspended action; instructing and delighting the leisure of accumulated wealth; detecting the artifices of political intrigue; confounding the schemes of profligate ambition; animating the patriot's hope, and nerving the hero's arm—and we must all admit that the most important end of education in this Union is the diffusion of knowledge among the great body of the people. This truth is engrafted upon the political constitutions of some of our states, and practically manifested by their laws. And when we compute how large a portion of our happiness depends on the wisdom and stability of our pecu-

* Articles in this department will henceforward be arranged so as to occupy the latter part of every Number.—*Ed.*

liar legislation, we cannot but feel the deepest solicitude for the common spread of this blessing.

The beneficial effects of a systematic course of education in New-York, from which in fact our system is mainly drawn, are happily portrayed in a recent message of the distinguished governor of that state—he says, in substance, that the first duty of government, and the surest evidence of good government is the encouragement of literature—it is the precursor and protector of free institutions under which we may confide as the conservative power, that will watch over our liberties and guard them against fraud, intrigue, corruption, and violence.—A good system of common education may be considered as the '*palladium of our freedom*,' for no apprehension of its subversion can be entertained as long as the great body of the people are enlightened.

In further support of this opinion, and to prove that independent of political considerations, the public economy is concerned in the encouragement and maintenance of this interest, the following facts are presented.

1. That all the official reports of New-England, New-York, and Pennsylvania, testify that the cost of education has been reduced by the operation of modern improvements, such as those herein proposed, to one fifth of what it was under the old system of private schools.

2. That those reports do further prove that the high qualifications and industry of teachers, which are secured in proportion to the certainty of well requited employment, and their responsibility to the public, insure a faithful discharge of their duties and a corresponding improvement in their scholars.

3. That there has been an interesting improvement in the moral character of the people wherever the system of public schools has had a fair experiment.

The Superintendent cannot omit a passing remark upon an objection, or rather an imaginary difficulty, which has been raised by some in opposition to the primary schools—it is the supposed impracticability of procuring an adequate supply of qualified teachers. To this it is deemed sufficient to answer, that, beginning with the materials at present in the state, in progression those materials will ameliorate ; and in fine, the required means will be guaranteed and insured from the natural effect of its operation. And, in addition to this resource, the act for the dissemination of literature, may be viewed as an

important auxiliary ; and, in process of time, the establishment of a central school for teachers, with branches in the several counties, may be considered as indispensable to the greatest practical extension of its benefits.

IMPROVEMENT OF COMMON EDUCATION.

[From a pamphlet containing the Revised Statute relative to Common Schools in the State of New-York.]

One of the principal reasons why the standard of education in the common schools has not been more elevated, is to be found in the unwillingness on the part of the school districts, to make adequate compensation to teachers of approved talents and qualifications. How else does it happen, that at a time when the merchant is overstocked with clerks, and the professions of law and of medicine are thronged with students ; there is such a lamentable deficiency in the number of those who have the inclination and the ability, to engage in the business of instruction ? Is it not to be ascribed to the more liberal encouragement offered by other employments, compared with the compensation of school teachers ? Institutions for the formation of instructers are desirable ; but the education of teachers would be unavailing, unless the districts could appreciate the importance of affording such compensation as would command their services. There could be no other guaranty, that those who were educated for the purpose, would engage in the business of teaching. Other causes may have their influence ; but the seat of the difficulty may be traced to the disinclination in the districts, to make adequate compensation for the required talents and services. This is demonstrated by the fact, that those districts which adopt a liberal course, have able teachers and good schools. The business of education should be committed to the best talents in the country ; and it is in vain to think of procuring the choicest fruits without paying the market price. The monthly wages of the teachers of district schools, are frequently one third less than the amount paid to experienced clerks, or journeymen mechanics in the same vicinity ; and what is still more discouraging to the teacher, he finds employment not more than half the year. In consequence of this state of things, many of the common schools are kept by per-

sons who resort to the occupation as a temporary expedient, to aid them in acquiring some other profession. They are without the experience, which is so important to an instructer of youth, and can have very little ambition to establish a reputation in an employment to which they have resorted for temporary purposes. It is desirable that the inhabitants of the district should feel a deeper interest, and give more attention to the schools, where the characters of their children are in some measure to be formed. Duty as well as interest prompt them to such a course. If under the charge of an able instructer, a child can be advanced as far at twelve years of age, as is usual in the ordinary mode at eighteen ; then there is a clear saving of six years, to be devoted to the acquisition of additional knowledge, or applied to the service of the parent. It is evident that such results are attainable, under the improved systems, and the best instructers ; and it is the part of wisdom to adopt such improvements as have been tested and sanctioned by experience. Notwithstanding the rapid advances which this state has made in population, in wealth, in agriculture, manufactures and internal improvements ; it is not to be denied, that the mode of instruction in the mass of the common schools, has remained almost stationary. This remark is not applied disparagingly, but in reference to the state of common schools, compared with that elevated character which it is desirable they should attain.

The course of instruction in the common schools, ought to be adapted to the business of life, and to the actual duties which may devolve upon the persons instructed. In a government where every citizen has a voice in deciding the most important questions, it is not only necessary that every person should be able to read and write, but that he should be well instructed in the rights, privileges, and duties of a citizen. Instruction should be coextensive with universal suffrage. An unenlightened mind is not recognized by the genius of a republican government. The constitution of Peru (South America), provides that after the year 1840, no one shall enjoy the privileges of citizenship, who is not able to read and write. This is a much more rational qualification for voting than the freehold test, which has recently been abolished in this state. In addition to becoming acquainted with the history of his own town, county, state, and nation ; the scholar should be made acquainted with the laws relating to the 'duties and privileges of towns'—the manner in which the business of the

county is transacted, and the organization and powers of the government. As soon as a young man enters upon active life, he is called upon to discharge the various duties of a citizen, and the necessary instruction to qualify him for an intelligent discharge of duties, so important to himself and his country, should form a part of his education.

It is important that the rising generation should be well instructed in the history of their own country. Those who are to be the future guardians of our free government, should be made acquainted with the toil and suffering, which it cost to establish the liberties which they enjoy. In perpetuating the example which our country offers to the world, *that man is capable of self-government*, it is vitally important that the means should be afforded in the common schools, of acquiring a sound knowledge of the principles and acts of the revolution—of the cause and consequence of independence. A history, every incident of which has a tendency to inspire a reverence for the institutions of our country, ought to be 'familiar as household words,' to those, on whose intelligence and patriotism, the future hopes of the republic are based.

A. C. FLAGG,
Superintendent of Common Schools.

MONITORIAL INSTRUCTION.

[An unusual degree of attention has of late been excited on this subject in the city of Boston. Within a few years, the monitorial system has been introduced in several private schools, and more recently in some of those which, as public schools, fall under the cognizance of the School Committee. The result has been very satisfactory to many members of that Board; as, in relation particularly to the primary schools, may be observed from the Report on the trial made of the monitorial method in those schools, which is presented in detail in the last No. of the Journal of Education.

A sub-committee, however, of the school committee, appointed to consider the state of the High School for Girls, thought it expedient that, in lieu of that institution, an arrangement should be made by which the girls at the public schools might attend for a longer period, and apply themselves to higher branches of education at their respective schools.* To render such a

* See Intelligence in Journal of Education, No. 26. p. 124.

change more easy and more beneficial, it was proposed by the sub-committee that several very considerable alterations should be made on the whole system of the public schools of the city. The primary schools were to be diminished in number; and the lowest or youngest class was to return from the 'grammar' to the primary schools; and, as auxiliary to these measures, it was proposed to introduce the monitorial system into all the public schools of the city.

Much excitement of the public mind was produced by the arrangements proposed, which many deemed injurious in their tendency in regard to the school system of the city, and to the character of instruction in the schools individually. The merits of the system of mutual instruction became implicated in the general question; and no slight opposition was made to its introduction. Many objections to it were urged with various ability in several of the newspapers; and when the subject came before the whole school committee, it was deemed imprudent to attempt any further change than that of introducing the monitorial system into two of the 'grammar' schools by way of experiment.

The controversy on the subject of mutual instruction, which has for some time lain comparatively dormant, has been in this way revived; and as it is one of great moment to common schools generally, and as we would not obtrude our own opinion on this topic, to the exclusion of those of others who think differently, we intend to lay before our readers as satisfactory a view as we can give of the arguments on each side of the question.

In our present number, we can go no farther than to make the following extracts from the Report in favour of the new method. In our next, we shall give the objections to it, as offered by some of those who are opposed to it.]

Your sub-committee have turned their attention to that ancient system, on which these schools are now for the most part, taught, and also to that other system, called the 'monitorial,' adopted elsewhere, in Europe and America, and with unexampled success, in connexion with the experience, and the opinions entertained concerning it in this city and the practicability and the means of introducing it into our schools.

That a wish has long been entertained by many of our intelligent citizens, to have it thus introduced, and that its introduction has met with obstacles, hitherto insurmountable, is well

known. It is proper, therefore, that the advantages to be expected from the monitorial system should be distinctly stated, and the practical difficulties, in the way of its introduction, examined, and if possible obviated.

The advantages of the monitorial system in comparison with the old system, may briefly be thus stated. To the student it makes learning less irksome, by simplifying and facilitating his progress, it gives to instruction more interest, by alternation and variety of exercise, in which physical and intellectual action are combined ; it keeps attention awake and interested, by permitting no moment of idleness or listlessness ; its effects on the habits, character, and intelligence of youth are highly beneficial ; disposing their minds to industry, to readiness of attention, and to subordination, thereby creating in early life a love of order, preparation for business, and acquaintance with the relative obligations and duties both of pupil and instructer.

To the master also, it renders teaching less irksome and more interesting, giving an air of sprightliness and vivacity to his duties, exciting the principles of emulation among his scholars, aiding him by the number of assistants he can thus employ, and, by relieving him from the constant necessity of direct supervision of every individual, capacitates him to concentrate his mind and efforts on points and objects of the most importance, difficulty, and responsibility. To all which it may be added, though a consideration less important, yet not to be overlooked, that it is an immense saving both of time and money, in consequence of the far greater numbers which can be taught, as well by this mode, as a smaller number can be by the former.

It will be sufficient under this head, to state that in New-York three masters, in three distinct schools, teach fifteen hundred and forty seven boys, being an average of upwards of five hundred each. In our schools, the same number of boys would require seven schools and fifteen instructers. In New-York a single female teaches a school on this principle, of four hundred. In our schools the average number to an instructress is fifty six. The success and progressive advancement in those schools, is asserted by men deemed competent judges, to be not less than ours. Without predicating any proposition on this statement, it is referred to as a fact, asserted by an authority deemed competent.

The general advantage of the monitorial or mutual instruc tion system, your sub-committee deem to be no longer hypothetical. They consider it settled to be a great improvement,

by abundant experience, both in Europe and America, and so justified by the known constitution of the human mind and principles of human action as to be absolutely unquestionable. Indeed, many of its peculiar principles and modes have been adopted, and are now acted upon, more or less, in all our public schools.

It ought to be stated, to the credit of the grammar and writing masters of this metropolis, that they have been as little actuated by the doubt and fears, inseparable from their situation, as was, perhaps, possible.

As they have known for a long time, that a strong opinion existed in the city among very intelligent citizens in favour of the monitorial system, many, if not all of them have gradually introduced some of its principles and modes into the discipline of their schools, as far as they have respectively deemed expedient, or as far perhaps, as from their particular circumstances was practicable.

Your sub-committee, are of opinion that while on the one hand it is the imperious duty of the school committee to proceed forthwith in the introduction of the monitorial and mutual instruction principle into our grammar and writing schools, yet on the other that it should be done gradually and systematically, in one school after another, as fast as, and no faster than local accommodations for that mode of instruction are provided, and that the numbers required of each master to teach should, in the first years, be less than the whole number of his present school, in case he so desire ; or, on his request, that an usher should be allowed him until by familiarity he gain confidence in the system, and in its power.

Your sub-committee are of opinion that the two schools, into which forthwith, and without delay, it ought to be introduced, are the Boylston and the Bowdoin schools ; and for reasons very obvious.

In the former the system has been already in a great measure introduced. During the past year Mr. Fox, the master, has taught both the male and female part of that school, amounting to more than two hundred each, without the aid of an usher, and has applied the monitorial principle as fully as the want of accommodation in the school room would permit. His success has been complete ; satisfactory to the committee of that school; to his pupils ; and to himself. In this single instance he has saved to the city the salary of an usher, amounting to six hundred dollars, and although the children in the vicinity of Broad

street, of which his school is chiefly composed, do not present the best materials for instruction, yet it is believed, his scholars will compare in the several branches with those of any other school.

Mr. Emerson, the writing master, is also one of our most efficient and intelligent instructers, and it is understood is not unwilling to cooperate in introducing gradually the new system, upon the principles above alluded to, of accommodating the degree of requisition, in point of numbers to be instructed, to the respective opinions of the masters, concerning the capacity of the system, and their practical acquaintance with it.

As there is a room now unoccupied in the Boylston school house, each of their present school rooms may be successively prepared for the introduction of the monitorial system, without any derangement of the exercises of either school, and before the females return to it, in April.

Similar reasons apply to the selection of the Bowdoin for the other school, which shall take the lead to be prepared for the introduction of this system. This has also now an unoccupied school room, which enables an immediate alteration of the respective school rooms, to take place before April, without interfering with the exercises of the schools. Besides, both the masters of the Bowdoin schools are among our most efficient instructers, and not unwilling to cooperate with the city, in this design

REVIEW.

First Principles of English Spelling and Reading, by Caleb H. Snow, M. D. Boston. James Loring. 1828. pp. 72; stereotype.

In a late Number of the Journal we gave a brief notice of this work, such as our limits would permit. As it is a manual which will probably come into extensive use, we revert to it at present for the purpose of making our readers more thoroughly acquainted with its plan and arrangement, and, at the same time, of making a few suggestions relating to methods of instruction at this elementary stage of the learner's progress.

It is a leading opinion with us, in reference to the management of the infant mind, that it should be made to see a connex-

ion between the subject of its preceding and its present studies, and to feel that it is continually receiving assistance from its past acquisitions, by which the more easily to accomplish its present objects. A sense of this mutual dependence of to day and to morrow is calculated to give the kind of animation and interest in our pursuits, which is most likely to make them useful to us. The plan of the *First Principles* is in strict conformity with these ideas. The author, we understand, was convinced that children would read more easily words in their Testament which they had learnt in their *spelling lessons*, and was also well persuaded that such as may acquire the habit of reading the various style of the different sacred penmen, with accuracy, would be little liable to stammer when put to other reading lessons. He therefore set about the task of selecting all the words of the New Testament, and arranging them in the order suited to his purpose. And for the accommodation of younger children, to whom it is inexpedient to hand a book so large, he has added a portion of reading lessons adapted to their age.

The spellings are divided into forty three lessons, including the alphabet, which constitutes the first. Each lesson is marked by its proper number, both in figures and in letters,—thus, XXXII. *Thirty second Lesson.* 32. This plan may serve to familiarize the learner with his figures and letters for numbers, which is no less a useful than pleasing portion of juvenile acquirements. We think our first perceptions of superiority or inferiority of talent, at school, were connected with the recitation of those lessons in the *Child's Companion.*

The alphabet is presented in a variety of forms, the first of which occupying one page, gives the capital letters in one column, and the corresponding small letters in a parallel column, at sufficient distance to form distinct resting points for the eye, which is led from the one to the other by a line of dots. The apparent waste of space is more than compensated to the learner, by the greater facility with which he may fix upon the individual letters. The propriety of teaching a child the alphabet first in the established order of the letters has been doubted by some, fearing that it would be learned only by rote ; to us it appears important that this order should be made familiar, even if it be before a single letter can be distinguished. The force of association is soon felt by the memory ; the child will recollect that such a letter stands in such a place in the column ; if when he is advanced to the second page where a table of similar letters is inserted, he fails to give a right name to the let-

ters, he should be turned back to his first page, and see its prototype ; which if he cannot name at once, he should be led to it from A downwards.*

The *Italic* letters,† so called, are arranged so as to give the capital and small letters in union, beginning with *Az* and ending with *Za*. We have all witnessed the pleasure of some promising child on being able to repeat his alphabet backwards : such things are small, but so is a drop of water or a particle of quicksilver. Another table follows, in which the small italics are arranged according to their powers, in fine lines, first the vowels, then the semivowels, mutes, liquids, and double consonants, in their turn. Being once fixed in the memory, time will not eradicate it ; and the child will feel the advantage of it, when he enters upon the threshold of his grammar.

In the lesson of words of two letters there is a deviation from the common routine of other spelling books. The two sounds of the two letters are brought in apposition, to show the learner at once the changes of which they are susceptible ; and the capitals and small letters are duly intermixed, to familiarize him with both : thus, we have *Ab*, *Ba*, *Eb*, *Be*, &c. instead of *ab*, *eb*, *ib*, *ob*, *ub*. A single inspection of this lesson, we believe, will convince instructers of the preference due to this plan ; and if it is in reality better, there can be no doubt that for the use of children, it ought to be adopted.

The third lesson consists of the words of three letters, found in the New Testament. They are arranged in fourteen sections, according to their vowel sounds. To avoid confusion, most of those words which are sounded alike or nearly alike, and variously spelled, are omitted here, and inserted in an appropriate table at the close of the book. The main point in early spelling lessons is to create a habit of accuracy in the young learner, and to furnish him with some criterion by which he may correct his own errors. On this account, perhaps, all such words would better have been omitted ; but on reflection it will soon appear that so many of our monosyllables are in that predicament, as to leave the examples too few to answer the purpose of presenting the learner in due time with the words he would encounter in his readings. Hence are introduced here such as occur in the New Testament only in one form, such as *tax*, *ark*, *boy*, &c.

* This familiarity with the order of the alphabet is found of special service in after life, when we are called to the use of dictionaries.

† Though occupying an early page, these letters should not be taught so early as to perplex the infant mind with too many objects at once.

The *fourth lesson* exemplifies the short and long sounds of the vowels as produced by the final *e* ; thus *hat*, *hate*, *sir*, *sire*, &c. and the *fifth* contains examples of the double letters, so called ; as, *fee*, *lee*, *fall*, *full*, &c. Then follow in successive lessons the words of four, five, six, and seven letters, each arranged according to the vowel sounds.

(TO BE CONTINUED.)

INTELLIGENCE.

COMMON EDUCATION IN MARYLAND.

[In the legislative session of December, 1825, an act was passed, to "provide for the Public Instruction of Youth in Primary Schools, throughout the State." The date of this important event, will doubtless be often reverted to, as an epoch of vast moment in the history of Maryland. To intelligent and philanthropic minds, a regular provision for public instruction, is the most valuable of all *internal* improvements. The citizens of Maryland, in all future time, probably, will reap a substantial and durable advantage from this act. The object of our present article, is to furnish our readers with a sketch of its more important provisions, drawn from the First Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, the same document from which the article on Primary Education in Maryland, was transcribed at p. 145 of last No. of the Journal, and from which the article commencing at p. 141 of our present number, is taken.]

The first and second sections of the act relate to the office and duties of the Superintendent,* which are chiefly the following : to digest and prepare a plan or plans for the public instruction of Youth, throughout the state ;†—to organize and improve such system as may be adopted, and such revenues as may, from time to time, be assigned to the objects of the institution ;—to prepare and report estimates and expenditures ;—to superintend the collection of the revenues appropriated as above.

The third section requires of the justices of the levy court in each of the several counties, in the month of April, or at any special meeting, for that purpose to be called, to appoint nine commissioners of primary schools, for their county ; and also a suitable number of discreet persons, not exceeding eighteen, who, together, with the commissioners, shall be inspectors of the said schools.

The fifth section makes it the duty of the commissioners to divide their counties into a suitable and convenient number of school districts, and to alter and regulate the same as prsecribed in a subsequent part of the said act ; and immediately thereafter to describe and number the same, and to deliver the description and number thereof to the clerk of the county, who is required to receive and record the same.

The eighth section refers to the organization of the school districts, the elec-

* The efficiency given to the system of common education, by putting it under the charge of a Superintendent, may be farther ascertained by reference to the excellent results obtained by this arrangement in the state of New-York. See intelligence relating to common schools in the State of New-York—given in last number of the Journal.

† Of the able manner in which this duty has been discharged, by the present superintendent, our readers can judge, after perusing the interesting sketch of a primary school system, above mentioned.—ED.

tion of a clerk, trustees, and collector—and the voting of a tax on the resident inhabitants for the purchase of a site for the school house, and to "build, keep in repair, and furnish such school-house with necessary fuel, books, stationary and appendages."

The fourteenth section requires of the trustees a semi-annual report, on or before the first days of April and October in each year, to be made and transmitted to the commissioners of primary schools for the county, which report shall specify the length of time a school has been kept in such district; the amount of monies received by them; the manner in which the same has been expended by them; and, as near as may be the number of white children taught in such district, and the number of white children residing therein, between the age of five and fifteen years.

The seventeenth section makes it the duty of the inspectors to examine all persons who shall offer as candidates for the teaching of primary schools in their counties respectively: and in such examination, that they shall enquire, ascertain and inform themselves as far as may be practicable, of their character and qualifications; and grant certificates, as therein prescribed, to such as may be found worthy.

The eighteenth section empowers the inspectors to annul any certificate given by them or their predecessors, under certain provisions; and enacts a forfeiture for employing a teacher without the proper certificate.

The nineteenth section requires of the inspectors to visit the schools within their counties, once at least in every quarter, and oftener, if they shall deem it necessary—to examine into the state and condition of such schools, both as respects the proficiency of the scholars, and the good order and regularity of the schools; and to give advice and direction to the trustees and teachers as to the government thereof, and the course of studies to be pursued therein.

COMMON SCHOOLS IN RHODE-ISLAND.

From an estimate of the number of schools in this State, published in the R. I. American, it appears that the subject of educating youth is exciting a very lively interest. Exclusive of the schools of different 'grades' in the town of Providence, which are probably about 100, there are in the other towns in Rhode Island over 300. Some of them, however, are not regularly kept all the year. The Legislature has passed a law for the encouragement and support of free schools, that the children of the poor may not rise into life wholly uneducated. The annual sum of $10,000 is to be apportioned among the towns, according to the number of population under 16 years. There are 31 towns in the State; and the supposed number of children necessary to be educated is 35,843.

STATE OF EDUCATION IN NEW-JERSEY.

It is a truth, mournful but undeniable, that there are many thousands of grown persons in this state, who cannot read, and many thousands of children that receive no education.

In proof of this assertion, we would simply refer to the data which the reports from the counties of Sussex Warren, Cumberland, and Cape May have furnished. In these four counties, possessing a population of 49,685 at the last census, there are 2,506 adults unable to read, and 2,241 children that have not adequate means of instruction. Now if we assume these data as the ground of an estimation of the whole state, they will give us the appalling result of nearly fourteen thousand five hundred adult persons who cannot read, and more than twelve thousand children, most of whom receive no education at all.

Report of the New-Jersey Bible Society.

It is to be hoped that legislative measures will be speedily adopted to remove such a reproach to the state, and such a hindrance to its best interests.

It is gratifying to learn that in the mean time this peculiar field for philanthropic effort is partly occupied by the labours of private beneficence, and that a contribution to the amount of $40,000 has been made for this object.]

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF PHILADELPHIA.

From the Tenth Annual Report of the Controllers of the Public Schools of the First School District of the State of Pennsylvania.

THREE thousand nine hundred and three pupils now attend the schools. The whole number of pupils is distributed thus:

In the Model Schools, Chester-street,	632
First Section, comprising the city of Philadelphia,	1132
Second Section, comprising the Northern Liberties and Kensington,	966
Third and Ninth Sections, comprising Southark and Moyamensing,	1042
Fourth Section, comprising Spring Garden,	131
Total,	3903

At the Common Schools in the country parts of the District, seven hundred children have been taught, and these, added to those instructed on the Lancasterian method, give an aggregate of FOUR THOUSAND SIX HUNDRED AND THREE, who, during the official year now terminated, have been educated at the public expense.

Since the present system was organized in 1818, 24,574 pupils have passed through the schools of mutual instruction, and 2,640 have been taught at the country schools; making the number of children between the ages of 5 and 14 who have partaken of the benefits of education in ten years TWENTY-SEVEN THOUSAND TWO HUNDRED AND FOURTEEN.

From the annexed accounts, examined by the auditors, it will appear that the Controllers have drawn orders upon the County Treasurer for 29,515 dollars and 11 cents, of which sum 16,769 dollars and 79 cents is chargeable to the support of the Lancasterian schools; 5,742 dollars and 17 cents to real estate and school furniture, and 7,003 dollars and 15 cents to education in the country sections. The actual cost of instruction of each pupil, in the schools on the Lancasterian plan, is 4 dollars per annum—of those taught at the ordinary schools 10 dollars per annum, furnishing additional proof of the economy of the improved system, and which ought to recommend it to adoption wherever the population is sufficiently dense.

The experiment mentioned in their last report as then recently commenced in the Model School, of furnishing several permanent monitors better educated than those usually employed in that service, has been amply made, and the Controllers satisfied of the utility of the arrangement, recommend it to the attention of the respective Sections.

The indefatigable principal of the model school, prepared during the past year, a short, but comprehensive manual, by which the operations of the Lancasterian mode of instruction can be easily understood and conducted; the Controllers have had an edition printed for the use of this district, and can supply the work at a very cheap rate for other parts of the state. They would also again bring to the recollection of their fellow citizens of Pennsylvania, that individuals desirous of becoming qualified to teach on the system of mutual instruction, will be admitted free of expense for that purpose, into the model school.

AMERICAN SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.

(From a late Circular of the Society.)

The following table exhibits the past operations of this Society.—When it was instituted, there were in connexion with the 'Philadelphia Sunday and

Adult School Union,' 723 schools, 7300 teachers, and 49,619 scholars; all of which were transferred to the 'American Sunday School Union.'

Years.	Schools.	Teachers.	Scholars.	Total Tea. & Schol.
In May 1825 there were	1150	11,295	82,697	93,992
" 1826 "	2131	19,298	135,298	
" 1827 "	2600	24,307	174,191	198,498
			Increase in 2 years	104,506

Atthis present time, the 'American Sunday School Union,' gives employment to fourteen printing presses, and prints on an average 432,00 18mo. pages a day. In its several departments there are about 150 persons engaged, exclusive of paper makers. The issues from the Depository, during the first half of the fourth year, beginning in May last, amounted to $26,254, and the receipts for books to $20,111.

There at least 2,500,000 children, between the ages of five and fourteen, in the United States alone. Of this number, 250,000 are receiving the benefits of Sunday school instruction.

NOTICES.

Sequel to the Analytical Reader; in which the original design is extended so as to embrace an Explanation of Phrases and Figurative Language. By Samuel Putnam. Portland. Shirley and Hyde. Boston. Hilliard, Gray, Little, and Wilkins. 1828. 12mo. pp. 300.

The book, to which this volume forms the sequel, we have mentioned more than once in the Journal; and have expressed our opinion that teachers would find it serviceable in aiding their exertions to render the daily reading lessons of their schools intelligible and useful. Fortunately for the young, there are many excellent Readers, with which every school may now be supplied; all of which aim at something more than merely to furnish the requisite sentences and paragraphs for the practice of reading, and generally convey much useful information. Among these, the Analytical Reader and its Sequel are peculiarly entitled to rank as eminently valuable, for the copious exercise which they afford for the cultivation of an early and accurate knowledge of the phraseology of the English language. This important point in education, has, we fear, been too much overlooked; and we are gratified with the appearance of the present volume as an indication of an increasing attention to good instruction in our native tongue.

The plan of the work is thus mentioned in the preface to the Sequel.

'We have confined the text of nearly all our selections to the left hand page, thus reserving one half of the space to the various objects which we will now proceed to designate.

'One prominent purpose, to which we have devoted the right hand page, is definitions. All the words, which were attended with any difficuly, we have transferred to this page, and appended to them their meaning. In this way no recurrence will be necessary to the pages of a dictionary. The words are explained according to their connexion, and thereby shades of meaning elicited, which the dictionary would not contain. In many instances, combinations of words, or phrases, are defined by corresponding words or phrases. And sometimes, when the original term was easily understood, a more difficult synonymous phrase has been inserted, in order that the pupil might acquire a

larger compass of language and phraseology, and, especially, that he might accurately understand the various idioms of his mother tongue.

'In some cases where a word has a variety of significations, perhaps of contrary import, the whole number has been attached. This, it is thought, will be a profitable exercise to the powers of comparison and judgment. It will cultivate the important habit of discrimination, while it brings into view, in some measure, the copiousness and extent of the English language.

'The system of questioning is intended to aid both the teacher and the scholar. The teacher is furnished with hints and queries, which he will pursue at pleasure. The scholar may find questions beyond his ability to answer, or some answers not perfectly satisfactory. These doubts may lead him to inquire of the teacher, and thereby a most important object will be gained. If he is excited to ask half a dozen questions, it will be of more permanent benefit to him, than as many pages of explanations from his instructer.

'The most difficult words in orthography are also transferred to the right hand page. Experience has convinced us, that spelling ought always to accompany reading. The scholar should learn to spell the word as he sees it, in the connexion in which he will ever afterwards see it. He should be taught to connect the form with the meaning, rather than to associate in his mind long columns of words, which have no connexion except in sound.'

The National Spelling Book and Pronouncing Tutor; containing Rudiments of Orthography and Pronunciation on an improved plan, by which the Sound of every Syllable is distinctly shown according to Walker's Principles of English Orthoepy; with progressive Reading Lessons, designed for the use of Schools in the United States. By B. D. Emerson, Principal of the Adams Grammar School. Boston. Richardson and Lord. 1828. 12mo. pp. 168.

This Spelling Book bears every mark of having been compiled with strict reference to the actual purposes of instruction. Great pains have evidently been taken to render it highly superior in character, and worthy of becoming a national work. Speaking comparatively of this book, the author seems to us to have been successful in all that he has undertaken. He has, by a strict adherence to Walker, thoroughly prepared the pupil for the use of the common dictionary; and by rigidly preserving the orthography of Johnson, has given a degree of classical character to elementary instruction in the English language.

The notation adopted is that of Walker, with one or two valuable additions, which render the system more complete. In another edition, however, we should be glad to see a *sixth* sound marked for the letter *O*—we mean that which occurs in *love, done, one, nothing*, &c.

The chief improvements claimed by Mr. Emerson, are the following: 1. "That this spelling-book precisely points out the pronunciation of each syllable in every word according to Walker's Principles of Orthoepy;—2. That it does this on a plan easily comprehended by the learner, and without encumbering each word with numerous characters or figures;—3. That it contains more matter, on the same number of pages, and in the same liberal type;—4. That the arrangement is better suited to the progressive improvement of learners, and peculiarly adapted to the exercises of monitorial teaching.'

Valuable, however, as this book is, we think that it would have been much improved by an arrangement similar to that of the Franklin Primer, in which the spelling lessons are extracted from the pieces for reading.